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The 42 chapters of this book, each contributed by an experienced supervisor of a business education program and a master teacher of business subjects, were originally published in the 1962-1965 May issues of the "National Business Education Quarterly." Part I gives a brief history of administration and supervision in business education with emphasis on the history of federal subsidy to business education, culminating in the 1963 vocational act. It is prefaced with a discussion of the basic philosophy and principles of administration and supervision. Problems of administration and supervision at the state, city and local levels, including specific qualifications and duties of the state supervisor, high school curriculum problems, and responsibilities of the principal and the department head are discussed. The final section of Part I covers problems of administration at all levels, such as standards of achievement, budgeting, guidance, public relations, and classroom visitation. Part 2 is devoted to administration and supervision of business education in colleges and universities, with emphasis on undergraduate and graduate programs in teacher education in state colleges, state universities, liberal arts colleges, and private schools. Part 3 contains selected references. (PS)

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Edited by

KENNETH J. HANSEN, 1962 and 1963
PARKER LILES, 1964 and 1965

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FOREWORD

This publication is intended as a reference for all students and practitioners who are interested in or concerned with present and future problems of administration and supervision of business education at the secondary and collegiate levels. While it may serve its primary purpose as a textbook in graduate courses dealing with administration and supervision in business education in teacher education schools, it should also be a valuable reference for courses in such areas as problems, methods, seminars, and the like.

Further, this book is intended to be of specific value to those who are engaged in the actual practice of administering and supervising business education at all levels: state, city, county, individual school, and college. It is written by outstanding practitioners in the field, educators who are exceptionally well qualified from the standpoint of both theoretical knowledge and practical experience. The purpose of the book, then, is to apply the results of research and the thinking of leaders to the persistent problems of business education administration and supervision in order to provide guidelines as to how the business education program at any level shall be effectively organized and administered.

The basic assumption underlying successful administration of business education at any level is that it is the function of administration to provide that type of educational organization which will release the creative potential of supervisors, curriculum specialists, teachers, and others, so that learning can take place effectively. Thus dynamic supervision and teaching are dependent upon effective organization. Conversely, successful administration is dependent upon creative, dynamic supervision and teaching.

The book is logical in its organization. Part I, Introduction, begins with a brief history of administration and supervision in business education with particular emphasis on the history of federal subsidy to business education, culminating in the 1963 vocational act. In addition, the book is prefaced with a discussion of the basic philosophy and principles of administration and supervision in business education.

The second section deals with problems of administration and supervision on the state level, including specific qualifications and duties of the state supervisor. The following section presents a similar approach to administration and supervision on the city level. Next, various problems of administration and supervision at the grass roots level—the local school—are discussed. Some of the key facets at this level include the high school curriculum and the responsibilities of the principal and the department head. The final section of Part I is devoted to some of the most important problems which impinge upon the administrator, the supervisor, and the classroom teacher at all levels, such as standards of achievement, budgeting, guidance, public relations, classroom visitation, and the like.

Part II is devoted to administration and supervision of business education, with particular emphasis on teacher education, in typical situations of higher learning such as undergraduate programs in state colleges, state universities, liberal arts colleges, private schools, and to graduate programs wherever found.

This book appears at an opportune time when attention is focused on the need for more adequate administration and supervision in business education at all levels, a need which has existed for several decades but which has become acute as a result of recent legislation.

Credit for much of the material in this book should go to Dr. Kenneth J. Hansen, former chairman, Department of Business and Business Education, Colorado State College. Unfortunately during the planning stages of the 1964 issue, his career was cut short by his untimely demise. However, through the renewed efforts of his coworker and the officers of the National Business Education Association, the task has been completed. Therefore, it is fitting that this book be dedicated to the memory of Dr. Kenneth J. Hansen, an outstanding business educator and administrator.

PARKER LILES
Editor

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Administration and Supervision in Business Education is the culmination of four years of planning initiated by the Executive Committee of the Division of Administration and Supervision, National Business Education Association. The editorial responsibility was delegated to Dr. Parker Lles and the late Dr. Kenneth J. Hansen. The Association is grateful to these editors and to each of the contributors of chapters for bringing to the field of business education a book that is so timely. Each of the persons associated with the book is an experienced supervisor of a business education program and a master teacher of the business subjects.

In releasing Administration and Supervision in Business Education, the Association considers the presentation as a notable contribution to the literature for professional business educators. The book embodies the contents of the 1962, 1963, 1964 and 1965 May issues of the National Business Education Quarterly. The Association is indebted to Mr. John Ferguson, Monumental Printing Company, who made it possible for the type from these issues of the Quarterly to be retained until the book was completed.

A special note of appreciation is due the members of the editorial staff in the NBEA office and to the staff in the Division of Publications, NEA, who assisted in the production of Administration and Supervision in Business Education—Hollis Guy, Executive Director, National Business Education Association.

Part 1

Administration and Supervision in Business Education On the Secondary-School Level

CHAPTER 1

History and Status of Administration and Supervision of Business Education

Herbert A. Tonne

It is not surprising that New York was probably the first state to appoint a supervisor (inspector) of business (commercial) education in the United States. He was I. O. Crissy, appointed in 1898. New York has had a more definite program of state control of education from its very beginning than other states. Around the time that Crissy was appointed the state inspector for commercial education, New York State was in the throes of setting up a system of Regents examinations—that is, examinations given on a state-wide basis by the University of the State of New York, through its State Department of Education.

EARLY STATE DEVELOPMENTS

When Frederick G. Nichols took over the supervision of business education in New York State in 1909, the program had already been well defined as one which was concerned primarily with preparing Regents examinations, grading them, and helping teachers cope with the ordeal of preparation for these examinations. This was by no means the entire function of the state inspector, but it was the bulk of work during Crissy's period and, indeed, for many years thereafter. Under Nichols, with his temperament, the work of the supervisor of business education was naturally expanded to improvement of subject content through the reconstruction of the commercial courses, service to the private business school, provision for business teacher education programs, and general public relations for the benefit of business education, within the school with general administration, with business, and with the public in general.

By 1924, as Leverett S. Lyon pointed out in *Education for Business,* Idaho and Pennsylvania had established similar offices; but, for many years the growth of business education supervision at the state level was slow. Lyon indicated that such supervision had

> . . . numerous opportunities to aid business education. One can conduct surveys as a basis for improving the training of given students, formulate plans for statewide programs of education, furnish informational and inspirational material to commercial teachers, carry on research upon which minimum standards of curriculum, teacher requirements, and equipment may be based. A supervisor can bring to legislative bodies the need for help in teacher-training and for proper certification laws for teachers of business subjects.[1]

Lyon thought that William Bachrach, with the possible exception of Clay D. Slinker at Des Moines, Iowa, was the first city supervisor of commercial work appointed in 1913. However, Nichols was appointed a city supervisor in Rochester in 1905 and was most vigorous in carrying on his duties.

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[1] Lyon, Leverett S. *Education for Business.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1924. p. 583.

DUTIES OF SUPERVISOR

Lyon suggests that, as late as 1924, there were fewer than a dozen business education supervisors at the local level. He quotes Bachrach on the duties of the city supervisor:

> The director should advise with the general superintendent in regard to the installation and supervision of commercial subjects and equipment. If there is no employment bureau maintained in a general employment department, he should establish and supervise such a bureau for graduates of the commercial department. He should advise with the superintendent with regard to the selection of textbooks and syllabi for commercial subjects. If he be wise, he will consult freely with his teachers and principals before making his recommendations. At all times, if he desires to be successful, he should remember that his supervision is horizontal and that the direct supervision of a school is in the hands of the principal. He should be very careful not to issue orders directly to teachers without consulting the principal who is immediately responsible for the success of his school. It is much more satisfactory to leave directions with a principal for the betterment of the commercial department in his school.[2]

ORIGINS OF SUPERVISORS

Actually, the origins of the formal supervision of business education are not clear. The private business schools with their extensive chains of schools during, and immediately after, the Civil War must have had some rather effective programs of supervision. Indeed, the degree of uniformity in the various schools comprising the chains indicates that there was rather strict control of the resident manager or owner, and also of the teachers, their teaching procedures, and standards of work. When business education was accepted in the public schools, supervision, if there was any, was conducted by the principal of the school, or more indirectly by the supervisory officer of the board of education. These officers were usually not familiar with commercial work. They probably were far more interested in the effectiveness of the academic program. Supervision probably was maintained at a minimum level, as long as superficial evidences that good work was being done were maintained.

FEDERAL PARTICIPATION

The origins and reasons for the establishment of a business education service in the Federal Board of Education and of a specialist in business education in the Bureau of Business Education are also unclear. When the Smith-Hughes Act was established by the Congress of the United States in 1917, primary emphasis was placed on industrial and agricultural education. However, the obvious desirability of training for the occupation of housewife, and the close relationship of industrial arts education to industrial education, made it desirable to include these elements of the program of federally aided vocational education. It must have been obvious to those who engineered the law during the hearings prior to the proposed legislation that commercial education was one of the most significant forms of job education that was conducted in the schools.

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[2] *Ibid.*, p. 534.

Then, just as now, business education enrolled more students and was more specifically effective than other forms of job training except isolated instances of specialized job schooling.

Although there was no pressure from business and little propaganda by business teachers, it became necessary that some lip-service attention be given to business education. Therefore, a Commercial Education Service was established to provide service on the state and local levels by making surveys and giving guidance to teachers and administrators. There was no specific aid for commercial education through matching state aid; however, the necessarily loose language of the legislation did provide for some loopholes which were used for many years for subsidizing cooperative programs of office education in the schools. The office of acting assistant director for commercial education was held for a brief period by Cheesman A. Herrick, until Frederick G. Nichols was appointed assistant director.

Among many other activities Nichols undertook a survey of junior commercial occupations in the United States which indicated quite clearly the futility of attempting to give shorthand, bookkeeping, and typewriting to students immediately upon graduation from elementary school. He showed that these students did not become specialists in these subjects, but rather undertook a variety of initial general clerical work. He forthwith began to educate the community of business education on the futility of giving this type of instruction either in the secondary schools or in the private business schools.

The propaganda was effective, not only because of the vigor of Nichols' presentation but also because the tendency which Nichols discovered was accentuated during the 1920's. Moreover, the tendency to demand that children stay in school for longer periods ably assisted Nichols. Then, too, he had the cooperation of such leaders in business education as Leverett S. Lyon, Paul S. Lomax, and Earl G. Blackstone. In 1924, when Earl Barnhart took Nichols' place as chief of the Business Education Service in the Federal Board for Vocational Education, Barnhart ably carried on the work for more meaningful business education.

In 1917 a specialist in commercial education, Glen L. Swigget, was appointed to the Office of Education. To some extent this position was a duplication of the position held by Nichols and Barnhart in the Federal Board for Vocational Education which, it will be recalled, had been set up under the Smith-Hughes Act as a separate organization from the Office of Education which, through many vicissitudes, had survived since its establishment in 1869. J. O. Malott became specialist in commercial education in 1925 and held the position until 1933.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE DEPRESSION

In the early days of the first Franklin D. Roosevelt administration, there was a drastic urge for reduction of federal expenditures. The job of specialist in commercial education in the Office of Education was eliminated, as such, and the Federal Board for Vocational Education was merged into the Office of Education. The chief of Business Education Service in the Federal Board Division of the Office of Education, Earl W. Barnhart, after a leave of absence was invited to return. In 1937 the establishment of the George-Deen Act created new interest in one subject area of business education. The George-Deen Act provided for a subsidy for distributive education. After a brief period of initial development, the states had to match approximately a prorated contribution by the federal government. In order to administer this program, the chief of Business Education Service was provided with a group of regional specialists whose primary function was to help the states set up plans for distributive education which would meet the minimum requirements of the federal government and then follow-up to determine whether the minimum were actually met.

Also at this time (1938) B. Frank Kyker took the place of Earl Barnhart as chief of Business Education Service. For several years thereafter, while there was some attempt at giving service to office education, the Business Education Service devoted itself almost exclusively to the servicing of the distributive education funds made available by the federal government. In the various shifts of community interests, these funds were increased and decreased according to the popular pressures and in terms of demands for economy.

POST-WAR CHANGES

In 1945 a rather vigorous demand was made for the inclusion of office education as one of the areas of job education for which federal aid should be given. However, the large organizations of those who would be most interested, such as the National Office Management Association, disavowed any interest in this kind of work; on the other hand, the private business schools which felt that any aid to office instruction would interfere with their opportunity for preparing students at the post-secondary school levels were vigorously opposed to this kind of federal aid.

Therefore, in spite of the strong evidence given by a few people, notably by Hamden L. Forkner, at the hearings, the proposed aid for office education was killed and has not been given more than cursory consideration since then. The net result was that under the new vocational training law, now called the George-Barden Act, business education in the Office of Education in 1952, became a Distributive Education Service, with no consideration given to office education. The Service had an acting chief for several years. In 1957, John Beaumont was appointed Director of the Distributive Branch in the Division of Vocational Education.

Starting with a little over a million dollars to be matched by the states, distributive education in 1960 received an appropriation of $2,602,142, of which $2,507,690 was spent through the state services. Office education with many, many times the enrollment received little financial assistance.

None of the federal service is administrative or supervisory in an exact sense. Federal officers can suggest and advise but have no direct supervisory power. The administrative service is limited to the obligation to determine that federal funds are spent in agreement with the state plans set up in accordance with the law.

RE-ESTABLISHMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION SERVICE

In 1959, after much prodding by various groups in the field of business education, a specialist in business education, Bruce Blackstone, was assigned to the Office of Education to give service in office and general business education.

The segregation of distributive education from other forms of business education is most unfortunate. The similarities in the basic elements to be found in both distributive education and in office education are so great that it is futile for each segment to try to operate by itself. Some people in the field of distributive education are opposed to being a part of the total program of business education, because they fear that office education, which is so much larger in the schools, will absorb distributive education. There is undoubtedly some jealously also in that the exact relationship between job training and success on the job in preparing for shorthand and for office machine operation is such that a prospective worker cannot get a job without such specific school instruction. But, many people in office education, who by necessity take over the label of business education, are a bit resentful that the people in distributive education have received such effective help from merchandising associations and that they received federal aid.

THE PROBLEM OF TERMINOLOGY

In states and cities where there is a joint program, there is an unfortunate tendency to label the common program "Distributive and Business Education." By its very label this designation is an anomaly because business education includes the whole program. A program under one authority should preferably be called a business education service or division, or, if the original identity to the two divisions must be maintained, the office should be called the "Distributive and Office Education Service." Unfortunately, this also is far from perfect because it leaves out the most significant area of business and economic education. To call a particular service a "Division of General Business, Economic, Office, and Distributive Education" would be absurd. There is only one logical answer: to call such a service a "Business Education Service" whether at the city, state, or federal level.

To paraphrase a statement by one of the outstanding state directors of business education: There should be no conflict in business education between office education and distributive training. Yet, the dichotomy which has existed has plagued us. It doesn't make sense, and we can't afford to continue the battle. We need a "summit conference" among office education people and distributive education people to prevent our being pushed aside by some of the more sophisticated movements in education, particularly in the area of science and mathematics.

As a service becomes large enough, there can be specialists in every one of these segments. This fraternal disagreement, which in some cases has become virtually warfare, has been a serious detriment to the development of business education. There have been traces of separatism in a few cities in the separation of bookkeeping and stenographic instruction. Fortunately, however, this possible source of difference has not become significant.

SHIFTS IN THINKING ABOUT SUPERVISION

In the first quarter of the century, there was a good opportunity for the development of supervisors, coordinators, and directors of business education. As the communities were becoming more aware of the tremendous importance of business education as an area of learning, they became more sympathetic towards giving business education special consideration. However, around the beginning of the second quarter of the century, the progressive education movement strongly emphasized the point of view that subject content was of incidental importance and that skills, particularly, could be learned easily once the student had the right attitude.

This tendency undoubtedly retarded the development of specialized services in the field of business education. Only the vigorous support of the American Vocational Association with the help of the labor unions was able to maintain a somewhat effective service in distributive education. Unfortunately, the recent tendency to emphasize academic learning at the expense of specific job education also tends to be a limiting factor in the development of a good program of business education supervision.

All teachers of business education should be strongly in favor of an effective program of supervision and administration in business education. Undoubtedly in theory they are. However, many teachers tend to be conservative. They prefer to do their own teaching in their own little niche without the interference of a supervisor or coordinator to propose more effective ways of teaching. It can, however, in all honesty, be said that with but few exceptions most of the people who have been supervisors of business education in either distributive education or office education have been thoroughly cooperative in proposing and encouraging the improvement of business education in the schools which they supervise. Some of them may not have been particularly effective, and a few had the inevitable tendency to become job holders, rather than leaders, but this is inevitable in any program of administrative control.

However, far too many of the supervisors have been even more inclined to maintain the status quo than the teachers they are supposed to direct towards improved work. A program of supervision which concerns itself merely with tricks of the trade in the classroom is futile. The alert teacher can develop these tricks of the trade by reading magazines, and the disinterested ones cannot be made to change anyway. The really effective service of a supervisory worker is to improve the work of business, and here there is a dire need for effective reorganization.

Business educators tend far too much at the present time to defend the contemporary program rather than to recognize that there are justifications for the criticisms posed against them. Institutions tend to maintain the forms that were desirable a generation ago (some of which were even then outdated) without asking themselves what kind of program is needed. Business education is not exempt from this tendency.

The most effective efforts at leadership in the improvement of a program of business education have been at the teacher education level. Unfortunately, at this stage of the process, it takes many years for the effectiveness of such preparation to permeate into the schools, and there is much opportunity for loss of initiative. Even here, however, the tendency for some of the more conservative to maintain the status quo can be seen.

If administrative and supervisory officers in business education merely help us to hold the line and to do better the minutiae of teaching, this type of service is futile. If, however, they give us the dynamic leadership needed to make business education function more efficiently in our economic and educational system, such service will be most worth while. An objective survey of what has happened and what is happening indicates that administration and supervision in business education in the past, and at present, is only partially meeting this standard.

CONCLUSION

Since the above was written, a significant change has taken place. The passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 for the first time provides federal aid for business education other than distributive education. It changes the picture completely.

As a means of comparison for future years after the influence of the Vocational Education Act has taken effect, here is the status of supervision at the state level (including Puerto Rico) as of early 1963:

Classification	*State*
No official for either distributive or business education	8
Separate officers for distributive and business education	11
An official for distributive education only	17
Business and distributive education under one official	15
	51

The influence of the George Barden Act can clearly be seen in that in 28 states, there is only a supervisor of distributive education; if there is one for business education, he is completely separated in function. The result of the new Act should be the appointment of officers for business education on a large scale. It is hoped that there will be an officer in charge of both phases of business education with specialists in the various phases of business education subordinate to him in all except the smaller states. This desirable situation is now true of New York and California, among others.

On the local level, most of the communities with a population of over 50,000 had no supervisor for any phase of business education. For those which did, here is the picture:

Classification	*Community*
Separate officials for business and distributive education	8
An officer for business education only	11
An officer for distributive education only	24
An officer responsible for both business and distributive education	39
	82

This situation is also likely to change considerably as a result of the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

A rigorous program of meaningful research is basic to the effective use of the new federal funds. A superficial survey of what jobs are in short supply is no longer sufficient. We need detailed studies of a precise nature indicating exactly what bookkeeping abilities are needed for various initial and inservice workers for the many different jobs in which bookkeeping is used. We need to know what office machine training is needed, by whom, in what degree, and for what job. We need to know, and in detail, what forms of shorthand are used and can be used on the job by which types of workers. We need to stop pussy-footing on the use of abbreviated longhand and machine shorthand. What are the facts? No one, as far as I can tell, has the facts. We all guess according to our prejudices and isolated experience. Most important, we need to know in detail how and where electronic data processing is changing the various phases of business, especially on the initial employment level. If such a study is not made as a prelude to increased expenditures, the training that results will be futile, if not harmful—and that is an understatement.

CHAPTER 2

Administration and Supervision of Vocational Business Education

Vernon A. Musselman

The need for supervision in business education was recognized at the turn of the Twentieth Century. However, relatively little had been done to implement supervisory programs by the mid-point of the Century. Very little was being done at the national level, and only slightly more at the state level.

Supervisory services were being provided in a number of city and county school systems by this time, and there was an organization of supervisors functioning as a Division of the United Business Education Association (The UBEA and other professional education organizations unified their programs to become the National Business Education Association in July 1962.)

It might be well at this point to mention some of the milestones in the historical development of supervision of business education.

HISTORY OF ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

The first person to serve officially in the position of state supervisor of business education was I. O. Crissy, who was appointed in New York state in 1898. (His title was actually that of inspector of commercial education.) By 1924 two additional states, Idaho and Pennsylvania, had also established a state service in business education. [1]

By 1941 there were five states with special supervisors for business education, and as recently as 1962 there were only 12 states with full-time business education supervisors. Another dozen states supplied some supervision of business education on a "part-time" basis since they had personnel who were responsible for the overall supervision of both business and distributive education. [2] The majority of all of these programs were under the state directors for vocational education in the respective states.

The first city supervisor for business education was Frederick G. Nichols, who was appointed in Rochester, New York, in 1905. Twenty years later there were still fewer than a dozen business education supervisors at the local level.[3] In 1962 there were 26 city and county school systems that had one or more persons serving as business education supervisors, and 33 additional systems where the supervisors were responsible for both business and distributive education. [4]

At the national level, Glen L. Swigget was appointed as specialist in commercial education in the U.S. Office of Education in 1917. Following the passage of the George-Deen Act in 1937, the business education specialist in the U.S. Office was concerned largely with servicing the area of distributive education. However, after considerable demand on the part of many individuals, groups, and organizations, a specialist in business education was appointed in 1959. Bruce I. Blackstone was assigned to this position in order to provide service for both vocational and general business education.

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[1] Tonne, Herbert. "History and Status of Administration and Supervision of Business Education." Chapter 1.

[2] "Directory of State Supervisors of Business Education, 1962-63." *National Business Education Quarterly* 31:82-84; May 1963. This report includes Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia, all of which have supervisors.

[3] Lyon, Leverett S. *Education for Business.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1924. p. 534.

[4] "Directory of City and County Supervisors in Business Education, 1962-63." *National Business Education Quarterly* 31:87-94; May 1963. This directory includes only those school systems with a population of at least 50,000 persons.

Since the passage of the Perkins Bill in 1963, the work of this service has been largely concerned with vocational business education and this is likely to continue in the immediate years ahead.

BASIC FACTORS OF THE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1963

When Congress passed the Vocational Education Act of 1963, business and office occupations were specifically included along with those subject matter areas that had previously been subsidized with federal monies. The passage of the Act spurred a renewed interest and enthusiasm for vocational study programs in business education.

One of the chief purposes of the Vocational Education Act was to alleviate unemployment. It is quite comprehensive in scope and includes post secondary school classes as well as those for students who are enrolled in high school. It includes area vocational schools as well as the public secondary schools. It provides for both part-time and full-time study, and for a combination of study and work.

There are several important *basic factors* in the programs authorized by this Act. They appear throughout the various provisions of the act so frequently that the intent of Congress regarding vocational education is quite clear. These basic factors are:

1. *Preparation programs are to be geared to the labor market.* Programs are to prepare persons for specific jobs and for families of occupations where workers are needed. Regional and national needs are to be considered as well as local needs; ultimate occupational needs are to be taken into consideration as well as immediate needs.

2. *All occupations are to be considered when developing preparation programs.* The whole spectrum of job opportunities that require preparation below the professional level is included. Preparation programs are appropriate in any area of business or industry where skilled workers are needed. The overall program in any state is to be integrated and correlated, rather than segmented or compartmentized.

3. *Persons of all levels of ability are to be included and provided for.* Even persons with weak cultural backgrounds and retarded social development are to be given an opportunity to become employable through education and training. These groups are specifically mentioned in the Act.

4. *All types of schools are eligible to offer preparation programs.* The comprehensive secondary school, the vocational high school, the area vocational school, the technical institute, and the community junior college are

all included. Even two-year study programs in four-year institutions may qualify. All types may not be utilized fully in any single state but used on a selective basis as the need arises.

5. *Research is to be given emphasis in all phases of the program.* Research is to be a major activity.

6. *The program is to be evaluated periodically.* The first major evaluation is scheduled for the year of 1966 and will be conducted regularly thereafter to see how well the program in each state is achieving its objectives.

SOME COMMON ELEMENTS IN STATE PROGRAMS

Although every state must develop its own program, all programs must satisfy the essential requirements spelled out in the Vocational Education Act of 1963. Consequently, a number of policies are found in the operating plans of most states. Some of these are as follows:

1. An individual school must offer a comprehensive program that enables students to attain competency in designated areas of work specialization. In some states the curricular programs are developed at the state level, while in other states they are left to the individual schools.
2. Cooperative work experience programs form the heart of the vocational study programs. Some states permit a practice laboratory that is scheduled for a long block of time to be used in lieu of a cooperative work program.
3. Where coordinators supervise students who are working on the job, they must be given reduced teaching loads.
4. Students who enroll in vocational business classes must make their occupational objectives a matter of record.
5. Students with declared vocational objectives are taught in separate classes from general education students.
6. Teachers of vocational business classes must have had business or office experience.
7. Local districts are reimbursed on a 50-50 basis for the purchase and maintenance of equipment and instructional materials. Teachers' salaries and travel are usually reimbursed at more than 50 percent.
8. Teachers are not required to devote their entire teaching day to vocational classes. A school may combine fractions of different teachers' time to make a vocational unit.
9. Standards are given regarding space, furniture, and equipment.
10. Certain subjects such as general business and first-year typewriting are considered pre-vocational rather than vocational. Vocational study programs are expected to build upon prevocational courses and are concentrated in the eleventh and twelfth grades.

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION AT THE STATE LEVEL

The administration and supervision of vocational business education at the state level includes several clearly identifiable responsibilities.

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ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION AT THE STATE LEVEL

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One of the first and most important functions is the preparation of criteria, standards, and regulations pertaining to the statewide program. These must be written in such a manner that they may be understood and interpreted correctly by teachers and school administrators. In the development of these policies, it is a good practice to bring together small groups of teachers and school principals who can serve as a sounding board and an advisory council.

After the policies are developed, they must be published and distributed to the schools. It is always a problem to estimate accurately the number of copies that will be needed. In addition to school principals and departmental chairmen, there are several other groups of persons who will want copies. Classroom teachers, equipment salesmen, and persons in state departments of education in other states will request copies of the state policies, criteria, and standards.

A second function in administering vocational business education at the state level is that of explaining methods of operation to the faculties in city and county school districts. It is impossible to clarify all the essential specifics in a written document and anticipate all questions that might be raised. Representatives from the state department of education must meet with groups of teachers, administrators, and guidance counselors to explain and interpret policies and answer questions about standards and other details as they might be applied in particular school situations.

When the faculty members of a particular school decide to institute a vocational business program, they will need assistance and advice in designing and developing curriculums to prepare students for various occupational objectives. They will want to know sources and procedures to follow in obtaining suitable equipment and instructional materials. The state supervisory staff must be prepared to recommend programs and lend assistance in launching them.

Approval of proposed programs is another aspect of state administration. Curriculums, requisitions for equipment purchases, and requests for reimbursement must all be approved. This particular phase of the work at the state department level necessitates the preparation and use of forms that are clear, complete, and succinct.

Approval and coordination of teacher education programs is the responsibility of the state supervisory staff. The state director of business education must approve preservice programs for preparing teachers. He and his staff must also plan and help direct in-service institutes, workshops, and seminars for teachers of vocational business classes. Some of these will be strictly state department functions; others will be held in cooperation with the faculties of various teacher education institutions.

The accounting for funds is another important administrative responsibility. This begins with estimates of needs several months in advance so that budgets may be prepared and adequate appropriations requested. Separate estimates must be prepared for salaries, equipment purchases and repair, supplies, travel and subsistence, institutes and workshops, research, secretarial help, and miscellaneous operating expenses.

Accurate records of encumbrances against appropriations must be maintained. The amounts spent must be checked against budgeted figures periodically, in order to know to what extent future requests for funds may be approved.

Evaluation is essential to efficient administration of present programs and improvements in future programs. This must be done continually. All state supervisors must constantly appraise present practices and be alert to observe needed changes. Recommendations must be submitted by area supervisors to the State Director of Business Education as well as to the appropriate persons in local districts. Reports must be submitted to the state board of education through the state director of vocational education.

Coordination of programs at varying age levels and in the different types of schools is perhaps the greatest administrative problem pertaining to vocational programs at the state level. Secretarial curriculums and data processing courses, for example, might be offered in large metropolitan high schools, in area vocational schools, community colleges, or in two-year programs at four-year schools. The choice of the most appropriate institutions for selected programs in specific communities is not easy. Criteria to use in making such choices are essential, but they are not sufficient within themselves. All types of pressures (political and otherwise) are brought to bear in an effort to obtain state and federal funds for particular schools.

STATE ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS

The organizational setup is similar in most states. Within the state department of education there is a division or bureau of vocational education. The chief administrative officer for this unit is customarily called the "State Director of Vocational Education." Serving under him are several assistants each of whom is the head man for a particular service, such as agriculture, business education, health occupations, home economics, and trades and industry. In most states provision is made for "area supervisors" who cover designated geographic sections of the state and who report to the state directors for the different services. For example, an area supervisor for business education would serve under the direction of the state director (or supervisor) of business education.[5]

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION AT THE LOCAL LEVEL

Many functions and responsibilities of the administration of vocational business education at the local level are quite similar to those at the state level but different in their application. One chief difference is that the local supervisor's task is more operational than advisory. He is the person who must make a particular program function in a specific school system and community.

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[5] For some statements of specific and detailed responsibilities of state supervisors as reported in the words of the supervisors themselves, see an article by Harry Huffman, "Responsibilities of the State Department of Education for the Administration and Supervision of Business Education." Chapter 7.

The local supervisor is confronted with the problems of developing curriculums and ordering equipment. Whereas the state supervisor might recommend a variety of alternatives the local supervisor must be specific. He must propose that a definite program of study be offered, that a particular make and model of desk or machine be purchased.

Whereas the area or state supervisor can offer criteria and suggestions as the basis of selecting students for a cooperative work experience program, the local coordinator-supervisor must make the actual selections. Furthermore, he must live with his decisions and follow through to see that they work satisfactorily.

The area supervisor may offer assistance in setting up and equipping an office machines laboratory. But the local coordinator-supervisor must make specific choices in terms of particular school situations.

The local supervisor must conduct community surveys, follow up studies of school graduates, and work with an advisory committee of businessmen in his community. He must work with the guidance counselors in his institution in identifying the students who should follow a "vocational program of study" rather than a "general business education program."

The local supervisor, like the state supervisor, is responsible for budget estimates, requisitioning and accounting for funds, preparation of reports, and continual evaluation of results.

QUALITIES OF SUPERVISORS

Persons who serve as supervisors of vocational business education programs at either the state or local level must be leaders. They are in positions where they exert influence in policy formation. They encourage reflective thinking and self-expression on the part of others. They must be able to develop a team spirit among those with whom they work.

Supervisors are facilitators in group processes of communication, discussion, and decision making. They must guide and encourage groups of teachers to work together on a professional level. They should conduct in-service programs to help teachers develop these abilities.

Supervisors create and initiate new materials and work procedures, and help teachers to do the same. Perhaps their greatest value lies in their creative contributions and their ability to challenge others. Supervisors must be out ahead of the rank and file business teacher.

Supervisors are planners—they make both short- and long-term plans. They must be tactful in carrying plans through to fruition for they must work through others. They must also be patient, willing to postpone until "tomorrow" plans which others will not "buy" today. They must aid teachers in their planning and lead them to do their planning in a thorough manner.

Supervisors are experimenters. They must be dreamers yet be practical. They must be willing to try new ideas and encourage their teachers to experiment. In fact, supervisors are dependent upon classroom teachers to carry out the experimental procedures they conceive.

Supervisors are professionally minded. They take an active part in professional business education associations at the local, state, and national levels. They encourage business teachers to hold membership in their professional organizations and to attend the meetings of these organizations.

Supervisors are experts in human relations. They attend meetings of employers, employees, teachers, counselors, and school principals. A large part of a supervisor's time is spent in working with people, individually and in groups.

Supervisors are evaluators. Both traditional and new programs must be appraised for strong and weak points. Continual evaluation is essential to improvement. Evaluation forms the basis for change and leads to visionary planning for the future.

Positions in the administration and supervision of vocational business education are in truth leadership positions in every respect.

CHAPTER 3

A Philosophy of Administration and Supervision

Roland C. Waterman

> Let me first ask what it is that the philosophy of any subject sets itself to do. The philosophy of anything is the rational effort to answer the questions of the widest generality conceivably posed about it.[1]

A philosophy of administration and supervision* of business education should attempt to answer the following questions:

1. What is the purpose of administration?
2. What are the functions of administration?
3. What principles should be followed by an administrator to guide him as he does his daily work, plans for the future, and evaluates what he has done in the past?

The purpose of administration of business education at all levels is to improve learning. Here is one guide that can be used in all situations by all administrators. If a certain action will improve learning, that action should be taken. If not, the action should not be taken.

WHAT ARE THE FUNCTIONS OF ADMINISTRATION?

There is nothing new about the inclusion of a statement on functions of administration in an essay on administration. Henri Fayol in 1925 included "to plan, organize, command, coordinate and control"[2] in his definition of administration. In 1936, Luther Gulick proposed "POSDCORB" as the answer to the question: What is the work of the chief executive?

"POSDCORB" includes the following functions:

P lanning
O rganizing
S taffing
D irecting
CO ordinating
R eporting
B udgeting.[3]

In 1959 Ordway Tead wrote:

> The elements we thus by common consensus identify as essential components of administration are: (1) planning, (2) organizing, (3) staffing, (4) initiating, (5) delegating, (6) directing, (7) overseeing, (8) coordinating, (9) evaluating, and (10) motivating.[4]

If statements have been made about functions of administration for some 35 years, and if there is consensus about the functions to be included in a list, why another list of functions? The only purpose here is to encourage every administrator of business education to make his own list of functions and then use his list to help him conduct and evaluate his work. Following is my own list with brief comments about each item.[5]

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[1] Dimock, Marshall E. *A Philosophy of Administration: Toward Creative Growth.* New York: Harper & Brothers. 1958. p. viii.

[2] Gulick, Luther, and Urwick, L., editors. *Papers on the Science of Administration.* New York: Institute of Public Administration, Columbia University. p. 119.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 13.

[4] Tead, Ordway. *Administration: Its Purpose and Performance.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. p. 31.

*Instead of repeating the terms "administration and supervision" and "administrator or supervisor" throughout the article, the terms "administration" and "administrator" will be used.

The administrator is a stimulator of growth on the part of students and of teachers. This is the administrator's most important function. All other activities are subsidiary to, and directed toward, this one function. Growth should be toward the kinds of behavior needed by citizens and teachers in a democratic society.

The administrator is a *leader*. An administrator because of his appointment or election is a status leader. He should be not only the status leader but also the actual leader; he is the person perceived by those working with (I prefer "with" rather than "under") him as being able to control or provide the means which they desire to use in achieving their goals.[6] If the administrator is not accepted by the group as the leader, he will find it difficult, if not impossible, to carry out his other functions. It is trite but true that a real leader has to earn that leadership by the competencies he demonstrates in his work.

The administrator is a *facilitator* of decision making and group work, of communication, and of the work of the professional people working with him. The administrator is the key person in providing a setting and the facts that facilitate the making of decisions, in helping colleagues to know and understand each other, in keeping discussions on problems and not on personalities, and in providing the right physical and psychological conditions that encourage people to work together.

Decision making is crucial to administration. How should decisions be made? Should the decision be made by the group or by the administrator?

There are two reasons why decisions on policies should be group decisions and not decisions by the administrator alone. First, groups seem to have some superiority over individuals in solving problems involving members of the group. The available research on this point is not conclusive or finished, but at least it can be said that a group decision may be the best decision for a particular group at a particular time.

> There is no doubt that particular individuals in most working groups, because of their background and intelligence, are able orally or in writing to propose what appear to be excellent solutions to practical problems. When these solutions are considered in the abstract, against certain criteria of logic, they may seem to be better than those favored by the group as a whole. The difficulty is that the effectiveness of any action is conditioned by the background, insight, and ability of the people who must carry it out. In a sense this means that the action recommended by a group probably represents the best that the members, at the time, are able to do.[7]

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[5] Waterman, Roland C. "The Administration and Supervision of Business Teacher Education." Unpublished Ed.D. project. Advanced School of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University. p. 17-27.

[6] Mackenzie, Gordon N., and Corey, Stephen M. "A Conception of Educational Leadership." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* 36: 11; January 1952.

[7] Corey, Stephen M. *Action Research To Improve School Practices.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. p. 88.

The reasons for the apparent superiority of group thinking over individual thinking are summarized in the following statement by Murphy, Murphy, and Newcomb.

> From such studies the superior value of group thinking over individual thinking, when demonstrated, is clearly due in part to (1) the larger number of ways of looking at the problem; (2) the larger number of suggestions for a solution; (3) the larger number of effective criticisms of each proposed plan; (4) the patent need to accept social criticisms and not be bullheaded (as subjects working alone frequently are).[8]

The second reason for favoring group decisions on policies is that such decisions often mean that some changes in attitudes, values, and behaviors will have to be made by members of the group. Research shows that changes are more readily accepted when the individuals involved have participated in a group situation in making the decision requiring the change.

The administrator is a *creator* of new teaching procedures and materials; of new ideas for business education and for education in general; of good working conditions and emotional climate for co-workers; of situations that help co-workers understand themselves, each other, and their students; and of ways to use the special abilities of co-workers.

The success of an administrator is determined largely by his ability to use his own creative powers and to release those of his co-workers. Teachers cannot be expected to use their abilities to the fullest under poor working conditions. The development of good working conditions—physical and emotional—is one of the basic responsibilities of an administrator.

The administrator is an *adviser* to students about their personal and educational problems; to graduates about their placement and advancement as employees; to teachers about their personal and professional problems; to other educational administrators about curriculum, equipment, and personnel; to directors of public relations about news of students, teachers, and business education activities; and to directors of placement about strengths and weaknesses of graduates.

One of the important kinds of advice a business education administrator is asked to give is advice on the selection, retention, and promotion of teachers. Such requests for advice deserve the deepest and keenest possible thought for three reasons: First, the professional life and future of individuals is at stake. Second, such decisions affect the lives of hundreds of students. Third, the life of the organization or institution is deeply affected by personnel decisions. Good personnel decisions simplify or prevent other problems. Woodburne, after studying personnel policies in 46 colleges and universities wrote:

> There is little question that, if the colleges and universities of this country could perfect the selection and appointment of new members to their teaching staffs, few

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[8] Murphy, Gardner; Murphy, Lois Barclay; and Newcomb, Theodore M. *Experimental Social Psychology.* Revised edition. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1937. p. 738.

> other staff problems would remain to be solved. This statement must be followed by a corollary to the effect that most of the mistakes made by departments and administrative officers are made in these initial appointments.[9]

The administrator is a *planner* of both short-term and long-term plans and of his own administrative work. Plans are important in the efficient administration of day-to-day activities; plans are a necessity if real progress is to be made over the years. While all staff members can and should participate in developing plans, the administrator must assume the major responsibility for planning. He is in a better position than staff members to see problems that affect more than one staff member and to make plans to solve these problems. Staff members may shirk their responsibility for planning, but the administrator cannot. He must use part of his administrative time for both short-term and long-term planning.

The administrator is also responsible for planning his own work in order that reports are submitted on time, correspondence is answered promptly, records are kept up to date, time is available for conferences, and thought can be given to long-term plans.

The administrator is an *experimenter* with new ideas in business education. It is not enough just to develop new ideas; someone must do the experimenting and research necessary to determine the value of new ideas in business education. Administrators should assume part of this responsibility by experimenting in their own classes and by encouraging co-workers to experiment.

Ideas should not be tried simply because they are new or, for that matter, rejected just because they are new. The welfare of the student must govern. If, after careful thought, a new idea is believed to be educationally sound and has promise of producing better results than present practices, it should be given a fair trial by comparing the new and the old practice experimentally.

The administrator is a *coordinator* of the work of the people working with him. Coordination is needed whenever more than one person is involved in a common activity. The greater the number of people, the greater the need for coordination. Coordination is needed, for example, in curriculum development, in the extraclass program, in purchasing equipment and instructional materials, in public relations, in the use of community resources, and in guidance, placement, and follow-up activities. The administrator, of course, may delegate the coordination of certain activities to his co-workers, but he cannot delegate his responsibility for seeing that the work is done. Coordination is one of the important functions of any administrator.

The administrator is an *evaluator* of himself, of his co-workers, and of the total program he is administering. Evaluation may correctly begin with self-evaluation, but it should not end until the total program has been evaluated. Evaluation of co-workers for retention and promotion is one of the difficult but necessary responsibilities of an administrator.

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[9] Woodburne, Lloyd S. *Faculty Personnel Policies in Higher Education.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950. p. 1.

WHAT PRINCIPLES SHOULD BE FOLLOWED BY AN ADMINISTRATION?

Administration in a democracy should first of all be based on principles of democracy. The following two principles are suggested as criteria to judge whether a particular administrative practice is democratic:

1. Democracy means belief in, and respect for, the worth and dignity of all individuals.

2. Democracy means faith in, and practice of, cooperative participation in the solution of common problems.[10]

With these two principles as a base, the following principles are suggested as worthwhile for business education administrators:

1. Good administration has direction and purpose.
2. Good administration is cooperative.
3. Good administration is creative.
4. Good administration is flexible.
5. Good administration provides educational leadership.
6. Good administration makes provision for communication.
7. Good administration is effective.[11]

THE IDEAL ADMINISTRATOR

The ideal administrator has developed his own philosophy of administration. He has thought about the purpose of administration, the functions of administration, and principles of good administration deeply, so that his philosophy guides his actions and evaluation of his work as an administrator.

The ideal administrator is more concerned about people than he is about enrollments, facilities, records, and equipment. He is concerned about students and co-workers as fellow human beings—people with aspirations and problems, strengths, and weaknesses. He is concerned that students and co-workers develop into the best possible personalities and realize as much as humanly possible the potential for good that lies within each individual. He works to develop people who will have a full and effective life and "enjoy" life in the best meaning of the term. He respects the personalities of all individuals.

The ideal administrator sincerely believes and practices the principle of cooperative participation in the solution of common problems. Policy decisions are made after the viewpoints of all people concerned have been considered and a consensus reached. He is sensitive to the many demands on the time and energy of his co-workers. He plans so that time will be available at staff meetings when policy decisions have to be made, but he acts on these decisions and does not take meeting time to decide routine questions.

The ideal administrator sees himself as a co-worker with other professional workers and not as the boss of a group of subordinates. He is a leader and not a driver. He is a help and not a roadblock in the path of progress He has ideas and beliefs, but he is willing to accept new ideas and change his beliefs.

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[10] Waterman, *op. cit.*, p. 29-33.
[11] *Ibid.*, p. 39-50.

The ideal administrator realizes the importance of his administrative work and believes that what he does makes a difference. He believes that because he has acted as he has, more has been learned, stronger teachers have been developed, better decisions have been made, and worthwhile plans have been conceived and completed.

The ideal administrator recognizes that "administration is a moral act and the administrator is a moral agent."[12] Further, he believes, "It is every administrator's obligation to give appropriate study to his problems in order to become truly sensitized to their moral implications."[13]

Finally, the ideal administrator, while recognizing the importance of his position and its moral dimensions, sees himself and his position in proper perspective. He is important, but he is not indispensable. He has responsibilities, but he is not overwhelmed by them. He enjoys his work.

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[12] Tead, *op. cit.*, p. 67. "Moral" is used in the sense of forces which affect the life, personality, and integrity of others in important ways.

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 68.

CHAPTER 4

A Concept of Supervision

Roman F. Warmke

Supervision provides resources, consultation, leadership, and cooperative service designed to improve instruction.

In the narrow sense, improving instruction might be thought of only as improving teaching methods. To improve teaching methods is important, and the task certainly is part of improving instruction. However, improving instruction is more. It is providing the right content to the right group at the right time in the right place using the right methods.

Improvement of instruction does not just happen! There are few established guideposts available to follow in providing the needed instructional improvement. The impetus needed for change must come from somewhere. Supervision is the logical source.

COOPERATION AND ACTION FROM OTHERS

In order to improve instruction through supervisory leadership, it is necessary for the supervisor to stimulate others to act. Supervision implies cooperative concern directed toward a common objective. Before a supervisor can expect others to act, he must be sure that they have accepted him as a member of a cooperating team. Those who are supervised may have accepted only his position as a supervisor and not the supervisor himself. Such a situation leads to totally opposite kinds of attitudes and understanding to those desired in those supervised. There are *two* types of authority needed by the effective supervisor:

1. *Formally Delegated Authority To Supervise.* This is conferred by an employing board or other organization in the appointment to a supervisory position.
2. *Informally Earned Authority To Supervise.* This is accomplished when the persons supervised value what the supervisor does to help them do a better job.

It is relatively easy to think of many examples of formally conferred authority. In fact, many persons think of formally delegated supervision as the only type of supervision. A supervisor, for instance, is delegated authority to supervise by an employing board or other organization, but if he has not earned the informal acceptance of those he supervises, his formally delegated authority will be of little value.

The formally delegated authority to supervise conferred on a supervisor by the employing board is only a starting point. It does open the way for a supervisor to earn essential informal acceptance. The situation might be somewhat analogous to that of an individual who has established a retail business. The establishment of the business does not of itself insure any patronage. The establishment of the business does give the merchant the opportunity to earn the patronage of potential customers.

Because many people think in terms of a formally delegated supervisory authority rather than an informal acceptance, it might be well to consider more closely the development of this informal acceptance. Earning informal acceptance to supervise requires the establishment of a relationship in which a supervisor stimulates the action of others. Effective supervision implies that the supervisor has acquired the ability to work harmoniously with others and has developed supervisory techniques.

The supervisor achieves his objectives by working through those he supervises. A climate is created in which others are encouraged to develop themselves and to take the action desired by the supervisor. The degree of leadership provided by the supervisor is determined directly by his success in achieving an earned informal acceptance.

SUPERVISOR AS A LEADER

If supervision involves supervisory leadership, obviously the effective supervisor must be a leader. No one has been able to define leadership clearly, or for that matter, accurately identify leadership potential. Leadership is an art rather than a science. Leadership is not a singular concept. There are many types of leadership—for example, inspirational leadership, delegated leadership, leadership by persuasion, organizational leadership, and leadership by expert knowledge.

Leadership implies two or more persons, a leader and co-workers. The true test of leadership is how well the leader is able to achieve objectives by working cooperatively with others. Rather than to discuss the ABC's of leadership, a whole alphabet—A through Z—of characteristics common to each effective leader is presented here.

A. He effectively releases the talents of others.
B. He provides others with opportunities and resources necessary to put their talents to work.
C. He minimizes individual and group conflicts by helping others to establish short-range compromises based on mutual long-range interests.
D. He is approachable and available when needed.
E. He encourages cooperative planning by showing that he is interested in others and glad to have their ideas on how conditions might be improved.
F. He listens a great deal.
G. He provides a center of communication; he keeps others up to date on all matters affecting them.
H. He quells rumors with correct information.
I. He has clearly defined objectives and has obtained agreements on the objectives.
J. He provides a climate conducive to learning, suggestions, and experimentation.
K. He stimulates self-confidence in others.
L. He provides a feeling of warmth, friendliness, and understanding.
M. He helps others feel that they are not working alone, but are partners in large and important undertakings.
N. He helps others develop a realistic sense of confidence.
O. He recognizes and commends superior performance, often expressing apprecia-

tion publicly; he offers criticism privately in the form of constructive suggestions for improvement.

P. He is concerned with people and ideas rather than paper and things.
Q. He is constantly trying to improve his general understanding of human behavior.
R. He explains the reasons for policies rather than hiding behind them.
S. He has devotion to his work and sincerity of purpose.
T. He takes his co-workers into his confidence; he has people working with him rather than for him.
U. He has provided clearly defined lines of responsibility and authority.
V. He is an indefatigable worker.
W. When he is wrong, he admits it.
X. He has respect for the limitations of people.
Y. He has respect for the hidden or potential abilities of other people.
Z. He has the ability to take pride in the accomplishments of others.

DO I KNOW MY JOB?

The question may sound unnecessary. But have all supervisors defined the scope of their jobs? Comprehensive definition is not easy. If a supervisor is to improve instruction, his duties cover a wide latitude.

A supervisor's job can, at times, be lonely. As the scope of the supervisor's activities increases, there are fewer colleagues to whom he can turn for consultation. The nature of supervision makes this true. The supervisor must provide the vision and creativity needed to inspire dynamic and constructive instructional improvement. Although the supervisor is effective only when he guides the work of others, much of the initial planning and direction must come from work done privately by the supervisor.

To develop an effective program, the supervisor must look to the future. Business education's "Brave New World" does, indeed, appear to be fascinating, challenging, and intriguing. Apparent trends are too numerous to detail here, but it might be well to reflect for a moment upon the impact of trends in certain areas: manpower changes, population characteristics, legislation potentials, philosophy of business education trends, adult enrollment expansion, curriculum changes, school population increases, research emphasis, business and education professionalization, psychological advancements, shifts to service occupations, mobility of population, specialization with certain diversification aspects, labor movement growth, automation's impact, and executive development.

If business education is to advance significantly in the years ahead, the impetus will have to come from supervision. Effective supervision can and should provide the vision, creativity, and imagination that will be needed to keep pace with the challenging future economy. If business education is to meet the challenge effectively, the present habits, patterns, and techniques of both theory and practice must be critically and constantly examined; supervision must provide the leadership. The trends in all areas such as those just listed will directly affect the supervisor's future program of action.

The supervisor can explain the program better and gain more authority if he thoroughly knows *his* supervisor. The supervisor should know the strengths, weaknesses, likes, and dislikes of those who have delegated his responsibilities.

The effective supervisor is usually his own severest critic. He strives to improve himself and his program. He is constantly listening and getting the feedback. He continually uses self-appraisal and suggestions from others to improve his supervisory leadership.

A common error is to interpret the absence of criticism as accomplishment. The effective supervisor deliberately solicits feedback, for he realizes that if those supervised are discontent with any phase of the supervision, they will tend to exaggerate their discontent.

The supervisor finds it worthwhile to watch closely for "unimportant" and "illogical" feedback. For example, a daytime instructor complains rather bitterly that the evening-school instructor left a lectern in his classroom. He says it takes too much space and he has no need for it. The complaint might sound illogical. Merely removing the lectern will not get at the roots of the problem. Such instances must be viewed in terms of emotional needs. His "minor" complaint might be merely a cover up for a significant underlying problem such as fear of job transfer.

Even though the real source of discontent has been determined, sympathetic listening and understanding are not sufficient; the effective supervisor attempts to eliminate the cause.

Before an effective supervisory program can be established, the supervisor, himself, must be fully prepared. Only after careful self-analysis is the supervisor prepared for job performance.

As a check; the supervisor can appraise past performance by asking questions such as the following:

1. Have I always been able to state clearly, precisely, and unhesitatingly how each supervisory activity would improve instruction?
2. Have my past predictions been accurate If not, why not?
3. Have my past supervisory plans included information on what was to be done, why it was necessary, who would be involved, when and where it would take place, and how the program would be carried out?
4. What evidence do I have that others clearly understood the scope and objectives of previous supervisory activities?
5. Have I in the past allowed good plans to remain "paper plans" without being implemented? How can ineffective implementation be avoided in the future?
6. What evidence do I have that I have carefully located all available and needed funds, budgeted properly, followed my budget, and conscientiously accounted for the funds?
7. What evidence do I have that my staff has been adequate to perform the services needed to improve instruction? Do the staff members show any signs of overwork or low morale? If so, have I taken any steps to correct the situa-

tion? A study by the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan indicates that a supervisor can appraise staff morale by asking such questions as: (a) Do the staff members find satisfaction in the job itself? (b) Do the staff members respect one another professionally? Are they proud of their associates? (c) Do the staff members approve of the pay scales and promotional opportunities? (d) Do the staff members have a feeling of belonging in the organization?

8. Have I habitually evaluated my supervisory program according to precise criteria to be certain that I am improving instruction?

9. Could all persons previously affected by my supervisory program interpret and explain the program so that it would be understood and supported?

A supervisor's evaluation of his performance is needed. To evaluate performances thoroughly, the effective supervisor also checks with all other persons affected by the supervisory program.

SOME FURTHER CONSIDERATIONS

1. Each supervisory activity should be evaluated against one aim—will the activity improve instruction?
2. It is possible that a supervisor may have other than supervisory duties.
3. The supervisor is not a boss, inspector, police officer, disciplinarian, or "snoopervisor." When he is engaged in such roles, he is not *supervising*.
4. Because supervision involves a minimum of two persons, it should be a cooperative venture. Supervision is most effective when those supervised (a) have accepted the supervisor as a resource person, a consultant, and a leader; (b) help decide what the supervisory service should be; (c) are vitally concerned with the solution of the problem under consideration; and (d) are provided with an atmosphere of acceptance, support, and understanding.
5. Supervision is concerned with improving instruction in all phases of business education—both general and vocational.
6. The nationwide concern for educational quality goes right back to the local community. Supervisory leadership exists to help the local school do its job better. Improvement of instruction rests with the local school.
7. The person charged with supervisory leadership in business education in the local school has a tremendous responsibility. He must have a clearly defined philosophy of life, education, and business education. He must be well fortified with business experience, technical information, and professional know-how. No phase of this fortification should come through slipshod, haphazard experiences. The supervisory leader in business education should have pursued a well-organized, properly-conducted preparatory program.
8. The objectives of city supervision, area supervision, county supervision, state supervision, national supervision, and teacher education are to help the local school do its job better.

Effective supervision provides the resources, consultation, leadership, and cooperative service designed to improve instruction in all phases of the business education program.

CHAPTER 5

Principles of Educational Supervision

Theodore Yerian

Many authors in many different types of publications have referred to the basic function of supervision as that which improves the learning situation for students. It is difficult to justify the existence of a supervisor if he does not contribute to effective learning in the classroom. We can agree readily with those writers, then, who say that supervision is a service activity that exists to help teachers do their job better.

The responsibility of this particular chapter, then, is to discuss the basic fundamentals of supervision. In other chapters, supervisory activities specifically concerned with business education will be given particular attention.

WHAT IS SUPERVISION?

It is so easy to say, "The key to the whole problem is supervision; we need to improve it." First we need to define it. It is not possible to please all people with a single definition, but here is one that should come close because it is quoted from the "Dictionary of Education."

"Educational supervision is defined as: All efforts of designated school officials directed toward providing leadership to teachers and other educational workers in the improvement of instruction; involves the stimulation of professional growth and development of teachers, the selection and revision of educational objectives, materials of teaching and methods of teaching, and the evaluation of instruction."

Is educational supervision different in any real sense from supervision in other professions or in industry? A close look at the basic purpose or function of supervision shows that there is no real difference.

In George D. Halsey's book, *Supervising People,* he tells of a foreman who gave a homespun definition as follows: "Certainly supervision has to do with something which we the foremen and supervisors must do in order to get the people under our supervision to do their assigned tasks properly."

Again referring to Halsey's book, he seemed to hit the nail on the head as he led a group of foremen-supervisors through a brain storming session to arrive at the following diagram-definition of supervision:

Supervision is
- Selecting
- Interesting
- Teaching
- Measuring
- Rating
- Correcting
- Eliminating
- Commending
- Rewarding
- Harmonizing

People
- Fairly
- Patiently
- Tactfully

In order to cause them to do their assigned tasks
- Skillfully
- Accurately
- Intelligently
- Enthusiastically
- Completely

Author Halsey makes his diagram come to life by following it with words of explanation: "Supervision, then, is selecting the right person for each job; arousing in each person an interest in his work and teaching him how to do it; measuring and rating performance to be sure that teaching has been fully effective; administering correction where this is found necessary and transferring to more suitable work or dismissing those for whom this proves ineffective; commending whenever praise is merited and rewarding for good work; and, finally fitting each person harmoniously into the working group—all done fairly, patiently, and tactfully so that each person is caused to do his work skillfully, accurately, intelligently, enthusiastically, and completely."

Of course, Halsey's explanation fits into his interpretation of the responsibilities of the industrial supervisor, but the basic objective of both is the same.

The reader will recognize readily that not all facets of Halsey's definition pertain equally well to every phase of supervisory activity. Much depends upon the nature of the personnel involved and the circumstances under which supervisory techniques are applied. For instance, one supervisor may have very little or nothing to do with the selection of those he is to supervise, while this function may be a major responsibility of another. Basically, however, it is agreed in most discussions of supervision that he supervises best who has a part in the selection of those whom he is to supervise, even though only in a general way. A state supervisor of business education would have no direct part in the selection of business teachers in the schools of his state, but he should become very instrumental in developing criteria for teacher selection.

MUST SUPERVISORS "BE BORN"

So often we hear the comment: "A leader must be born; he just can't learn to be one." A supervisor *is* a leader, and the statement is no more true concerning the use of one word than of the other. Someone has said too, that "nine-tenths of genius is sweat." Time and time again people of normal intelligence and a sincere determination to be of service to people have equipped themselves for supervisory responsibilities.

Naturally the personality of the successful supervisor is made up of a certain combination of qualities and characteristics. These can be made effective through the application of proven supervisory techniques. As already indicated, most people will agree quickly that the successful supervisor need not be "born," but that the personal qualities desirable and necessary for success in guiding (supervising) people can be developed. These necessary techniques, then, can be learned and made practical through diligent study and practice. Very probably you can recall cases where new and/or old supervisors have become more effective through organized and conscientious efforts to improve.

Let it be said very quickly that successful supervision comes from more than a knowledge of supervisory techniques. Too, many supervisors can be said to be "acting the part." Several seemingly indispensable factors that must characterize the working philosophy of the successful supervisor are: "sound and logical thinking, fair and considerate feeling toward people, and a sympathetic understanding of people." One does not supervise by suddenly becoming a different kind of person. The existence of certain qualities of body, mind, feeling, and character come about through inherent possessions or through self-training and self-discipline—artificiality fools few people!

As the principles and rules of supervision are presented in this article, the reader will discover quickly that he is reading nothing radically new or that has not been presented in a variety of publications for many years. We cannot escape the fact that the cardinal principles to be applied to supervision have not changed basically for a long, long time. When we talk about people and their interactions, we are dealing with factors that cannot be reduced to formulas and said to exist in an established pattern. Maybe this is what makes the supervisor's responsibilities so challenging and potentially rewarding.

The commonness of supervisory principles does not make them readily or easily applicable. "Knowing and agreeing are of little or no value." The important and vital criterion becomes proof of use. Do supervisors really apply what seemingly has become recommended procedures? As the qualities of the supervisor and principles of supervision are discussed in the remainder of this copy, see if you can recall mental images of their application in your own experiences. It is important that you be impersonal and objective in your thoughts, because it is so easy to become subjective when thinking about the interactions between people.

WHO IS A SUPERVISOR?

Wiles in his book, ***Supervision for Better Schools,*** answers the question this way: "Any official leader, superintendent of schools, principal, department head, or staff officer is a supervisor. All spend a portion of their time seeking improvement of the instructional program. Even while they are engaged in administrative activities, the procedure used has a direct effect on their supervisory function."

WHAT DOES SUPERVISION INVOLVE?

Supervision Involves Leadership

Any supervisor must develop a workable concept of leadership as well as a clear understanding of the relationships to be fostered and attained in the group he supervises. Leadership very properly is described as a quality of group activity. No one can be a leader apart from the group. It can be described as the contribution that an individual makes to a group situation. A group and leadership are a team. One cannot exist without the other. Leadership, then, is a vital ingredient that the so-called supervisor should possess if a group is to become a reality and continue to exist. The supervisor must be able to create a group feeling and coordinate it to desirable ends.

It should be understood that leadership may or may not be exerted by an officially designated leader. "Emerging" leadership may come from any one in the group and is recognized when ideas are incorporated in the group action. Supervisors, then, are official leaders who are usually appointed by higher authorities outside the group in which they work. The discussion that follows pertains primarily to the officially appointed leader.

It may sound trite to say it, but the officially appointed supervisor must win acceptance as a member of the group if he is to be successful. He is much more apt to win acceptance if he pictures himself as "working within" a group and not "working on" or "working for" a group. If he sees himself as one who helps a group to form and fulfill the objectives, he is much more apt to be a true democratic leader.

To be a domineering or a controlling influence in the group will cause the group to fail to develop potentially inherent abilities. When the supervisor "makes" the decisions for the group or individuals, the latter tend to become less productive. Too, it is often the case that the domineering supervisor causes opposition to arise to combat his autocratic practices. Dissension often becomes a reality when factions "choose up sides." Official leadership, then, finds itself "outside" the group; and control, if maintained, is achieved through undesirable autocratic rule, which forces obedience but does not earn cooperation.

The official supervisor who does the work "for" a group creates a denial of leadership and also must be considered "outside" the group. Basically, he has the responsibility to help the group achieve unity. If he is directed by the group to do what it has come to accept as common objectives, he is no longer a leader. On the contrary, he should be taking the initiative to keep the group members finding out what they want to do. The role of the official supervisor calls upon him to take the part of a dynamic person who generates enthusiasm and unity. He does not come to the group with preconceived ideas that tend to obstruct growth and individual initiative.

Supervision Involves Getting Off to the Right Start

Normally, an official supervisor reaches his position through promotion from within the ranks or appointment from without the organization. Both routes merit a few specific comments:

The person who is promoted from within the ranks has been working presumably as a member of the group without the official portfolio appointment. His own behavior initially may become his major problem. He will need to avoid actions that could be given the "superiority" label. He may even find it more of a problem to exert leadership as an official appointee than when he was a "regular" in the group because his coworkers know his strengths and weaknesses. His big objective should be to continue to be an accepted member of the group.

The supervisor who is brought in from the outside will find that first impressions are very important. A willingness to learn, an apparent sense of direction, plus a friendly humility are factors that will do much to create the "right" first impression. The newly appointed supervisor will do well to go out of his way to let his coworkers know that he considers their experiences and ideas important to the effectiveness of the program. This can be said to be true especially of young supervisors who are placed in leadership roles among older and more experienced members of the staff. One of the first ideas that he should attempt to put across to his new staff is that the success of the over-all program depends upon the degree to which all are able to work together and to help each other.

Supervision Involves Skills in Human Relations and Group Processes

Supervision is predominantly a matter of human relations. The successful supervisor must have an abiding faith in the worth of each member of his group and then strive to develop an atmosphere in which each person will experience maximum growth. He will be on the alert constantly to evaluate each problem situation in a manner that will help others (and himself) to grow. This is the "foundation stone" of good human relations.

Psychologists long have told us that those who are insecure within themselves are most likely to belittle and hurt others. The official supervisor then must have confidence in himself. This in no way should cause him to feel better than any other member of the group, but it does enable him to treat others as equals and to emphasize that all are working for the good of the school or department. The leader who is confident of himself does not waste time manipulating situations in order to avoid those he may feel inadequate to handle.

To maintain self-confidence, it is necessary for the supervisor to continue to study and grow. By so doing, he remains receptive and understanding to new ideas and procedures.

The supervisor who never makes a mistake does practically nothing! If he looks upon his mistakes, however, as opportunities to learn rather than something to hide, he will remain alert to the value of teamwork and to the need to remain well informed.

Another important characteristic of the successful supervisor is that he considers that the failure of any individual to make a contribution is due largely to his ineffectiveness as a leader. "People are apt to live up to what others expect of them" has been said many times, but it is a truism that has passed the test of time. Students and teachers grow in an atmosphere in which they are accepted as worthwhile people who have positive contributions to make. Usually the supervisor can build greater confidence and progress in a program by working with his staff on ideas initiated by them than he can by trying to rally them around his own ways of doing things. He has the ability to create an environment by which is released the full potential of the group of which he is the recognized leader. He exerts no "power over" the group, but strives to create a "power with" style of leadership that results in group planning and teamwork in its best sense of the term. His leadership is really crowned with success when it can be said by all concerned that he so inspires those he supervises by "word and deed" that all members of the group achieve to the maximum of their abilities. This calls for an unwavering equality of treatment, a willingness to listen sympathetically, and well-organized and functional communications media.

Supervision Involves Skills in Personnel Administration

Education supervision, as has been said so often, exists for the sole purpose of making instruction more effective. One of the major responsibilities of the supervisor, then, is to work unceasingly to improve the effectiveness of his staff. His responsibilities in this direction are myriad. Some of the most common activities that concern themselves with personnel administration are dealt with briefly.

Selection of Personnel. Any addition to a staff should be looked upon as an opportunity to strengthen the academic family. Selection should never be a "catch-as-catch-can" procedure, but should be guided by a set of standards that is developed cooperatively by the staff. Selection of a staff member should not be the sole responsibility of the supervisor, the principal, or any other one individual unless an emergency situation exists. This does not mean that the supervisor, for instance, cannot make the final decision; but he may do so in light of the standards and recommendations developed by those with whom he works. It is important, then, for the entire staff to feel that they have a definite role to play in the selection of new staff members.

Much can be said about the need to make the interview of the teacher candidate a two-way process. He is reacting to and making decisions about the official leader, the staff, and the school in general while they are drawing conclusions about him. The interview stage should be set so that all participants can make use of their maximum talents. This is really dynamic public relations in action!

The supervisor can do much to help the newly selected staff member "feel at home." It is he who is responsible for creating an atmosphere in which the new addition develops a feeling that he "belongs" and is an accepted member of the team.

Staff Growth. Responsibility for teacher selection is only the beginning of the supervisor's role in staff improvement. Of even greater importance is the need to build greater strength through in-service training for the present staff.

Basic, of course, to the effectiveness of any in-service program is the supervisor's ability to exude a sincere confidence that his staff can and will want to improve—not just an insistence that they must improve. Also his attitude should be one of wanting to improve along with the staff—not be just an organizer of programs "needed" only by others. Remember, if he is to remain an accepted member of the group, he "works with" the members of his group. Naturally there are many different types of in-service programs designed to do different things for groups and individuals, but it can be emphasized that training programs spotlighting improvement of the school program are most profitable.

Staff Needs. Every supervisor should be concerned about the needs, the worries, the ambitions, the wishes, etc., of those with whom he works. It is when he evidences such interests in his staff that he is able to develop high morale among them.

It is his responsibility to bring to the attention of his staff the services that may be a part of the school program, such as hospitalization, group insurance, sick leave, teacher rooms, salary payments, credit unions, buying associations, professional affiliations, and the like. Usually most of these services will be outlined in a staff manual for easy reference and study. If they are not, the supervisor should take the initiative to see that such easy-reference material becomes available. It is important that the supervisor carefully acquaint his coworkers with the proper and appropriate channels of communication by which they can make known those desires that may have an influence on the effectiveness of their instruction. Personal or group conferences willingly arranged or recommended by the supervisor will do much to keep open those channels of communication.

Supervision Involves Evaluation

Hopefully, improvement in the existing school program follows an evaluation. The supervisor plays a major role in "working with" the staff in evaluating any or all activities having a bearing on instruction. Evaluation is the process of making judgments that are used as a basis for planning. It consists of establishing goals, collecting evidence concerning growth or lack of growth toward goals, making judgments about the evidence, and revising procedures and goals in light of the judgments. It is a procedure for improving the product, the process, and even the goals themselves.

Wiles says, "Evaluation is an important phase of group leadership. It is the procedure through which a supervisor can bring about self-improvement." Evaluation is thought to be done best when all people involved in the activity being evaluated have a part in developing the "game rules." Such a procedure will do much to focus attention on the goals to be outlined and the procedures by which the goals conceivably can be reached. Professional stature is developed in such a process in learning better ways of doing things.

The supervisor should not be thought of as "the evaluator." If he is, then others sit back and wait for instructions. A far better procedure is "self-evaluation" on the part of teachers. Full attention is then focused on the learning situation, and the teacher becomes a member of his own evaluation team.

It can be seen, then, how important is the role of the supervisor as he creates an academic climate in which the self-evaluating teacher feels secure in his attempt to do the job better. A cooperative spirit needs to exist from the beginning as goals are developed, as plans are realistically and enthusiastically made for reaching the goals, and as the idea that improvement is possible and needed is nurtured. The teacher who accepts in a wholehearted manner that growth and evaluation are complementary to each other is very probably a successful teacher who has been stimulated by a "real" supervisor.

Just as the individual teacher can be encouraged to conduct self-evaluation, the same is just as true for the supervisor. Because he is the one who "sets the pace," he will be the first to evaluate his own work.

It is natural to judge the effectiveness of the official leadership by the degree of success achieved in reaching established goals by a department or school. Here, too, all those who have a part in the program should enter into the evaluation—some more directly than others, of course.

Before it can be determined whether leadership has brought about improvement, it is necessary to establish a point of departure. Logically this would be the time when a new supervisor comes into the academic picture.

CHAPTER 6

The Role of Supervision in Business Education

Arthur L. Walker

One of the signal features of management control in business and government during the last two decades has been the ever-increasing reliance upon clerical assistance. The office has truly come to be the nerve center of the business. From its typewriters, dictating machines, computing and tabulating machines, and files flow a continuous stream of records, reports, and analyses of the activities and operation of the business. To operate these mechanical and electronic devices and processes requires more and more thousands of technically trained young men and women every year. The office labor force in America in 1963 exceeds 10,400,000[1] persons and represents one of the major occupational groups in our economy. This represents 15.8 per cent of the total labor force and places the clerical and kindred workers classification as the second largest employment group in the nation. Of this group, about one-fourth are male, and three-fourths are female, representing 6.9 per cent of male and 30.2 per cent of female employment.

There are 2.8 million "secretaries, stenographers, and typists" in the nation with 96.5 per cent of them female. This represents 4.3 per cent of the total employed persons of the nation and 37.5 per cent of the total female office employment. It also represents .2 percent of the total male employment.

There are 7.6 million employed in the "other clerical and kindred office worker" group, excluding the stenographers, which represents 11.5 per cent of the total labor force. Of the nonstenographic clerical and kindred workers, 40.8 percent are male and 59.2 percent are female. Office occupations is one of the fastest growing categories of the labor force. At this time one out of every seven employed persons is in the clerical grouping.

The 1963-64 Edition of *Occupational Outlook Handbook*[2] estimates that "Several hundreds of thousands of openings will occur in clerical and related occupations each year during the remainder of the 1960's. It is estimated that by 1975 close to four million more people may be doing this kind of work than in 1963. Most of these job opportunities will arise due to replacement of workers who retire or stop working for other reasons."

There will be great need for the retraining of women who return to employment after intervals of homemaking and care of young children. Also many who remain and return will require upgrading and retraining due to the impact of electronic data processing and improved work procedures.

The volatile character of clerical employment points up the increasing need for closer relationships of training agencies with employers. Since full-time classroom teachers are hard pressed to maintain close and continuing liaison with employers, the positions of supervisor and coordinator become exceedingly important.

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[1] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Employment and Earnings* 10, No. 10; December 1963.

[2] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1963-64.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1964. p. 268.

The "closer cooperation of business management and the schools" about which Cameron Beck of the New York Stock Exchange wrote more than 30 years ago is happily becoming more commonly practiced than ever before. Business has provided for this closer working relationship through expanded public relations staffs. Schools have been much more backward in providing for these contacts through the employment of supervisors and consultants. The obvious liaison official for the schools is the supervisor, consultant, or director of business education who has special competence as an educator and is also skilled in public relations. Relatively few local school systems, excluding the very large metropolitan cities and only a minor fraction of the states, have employed such a person as will be shown later.

The modern concept of supervision is vastly different from the earlier idea of inspection, rating, and prescription. The change in function is reflected by the current tendency to use the title *consultant* under which some such officials now work. Although *supervision* still has an unpleasant connotation for some, the manner in which these people work is serving to make teachers and school administrators more kindly disposed toward the bearer of such a title.

A principal point of emphasis in good supervision is the group conference—a planned observation and discussion of problems mutually agreed upon by the consultant, the teachers, and the school administration officials. In some quarters it is becoming quite common and an accepted practice to arrange for these exploratory and evaluative conferences at the beginning of the school session, at mid-year, or at certain intervals throughout the school term. An important factor contributing to the success of such conferences is a sympathetic understanding and a marked sense of purposefulness. Conclusions reached are products of coordinated group thinking.

Supervision is a way of working with people so as to accomplish the most desirable results. Success in this undertaking requires that the supervisor have a penetrating understanding of people—that he recognize that there are differences in personalities, temperaments, emotional patterns, and human drives. The approach varies with the subject, be he a school superintendent from whom the supervisor wishes to obtain additional financial assistance, changes in curricular patterns, or other advantages, or a teacher from whom he wishes to gain more enlightened and effective instructional effort. The supervisor is always in a position of "getting from." He never thinks or permits others to think that he is "giving to." His principal concern is to establish proper rapport with all other supervisors, businessmen, guidance counselors, teachers, and administrative personnel.

The supervisor is a friendly helper and counselor to his teachers. However, decisiveness and firmness are prime requisites of his job. Arbitrary dictums and obvious authoritarian tactics are always unpardonable errors of judgment and procedure. The only reasonable response to such treatment is resentment and noncooperation, passiveness if not open hostility. Neither of these accomplishes the goals—improvement of instruction and good human relations.

It has been said that good public relations is simply the expansion of the principle of good human or personal relations. The supervisor must work in harmony with representatives of a host of firms, organizations, and associations. Many of the associations will be of a personal nature, but there will be instances when the contacts must exceed the limitations of personal relationships. An understanding of the uses of mass media of communication is often required. Effective presentation of ideas for a program on a community-wide basis will involve a thoroughly organized plan. It will call for the employment of the press, radio, television, correspondence, and speakers, for example. Many desirable ends will be better accomplished by an intermediary—"Let the other person tell your story." It is often better done that way.

Good public relations are achieved by an organized plan of telling the *who,* the *what,* the *why,* the *where,* and the *how* in a simple and convincing manner.

The most important and productive phase of the supervisor's job is his role in teacher education. The supervisor who lacks the ability to carry on from the point where the pre-service staff leaves off is ill prepared for his task. The novice teacher who has any measurable degree of professional interest stands in great need of assistance in his beginning position—perhaps greater need of real teacher education than when he was in his pre-service program.

Many and varied are the problems that the beginning teacher faces—choice of instructional techniques, policies of classroom management, understanding of faculty relationships, kinds of community contacts, and methods of planning for professional improvement. The availability of a competent and understanding counselor or consultant can be the means of encouraging many teachers to remain in the profession who would otherwise be lost because of frustration and discouragement. A recent state-wide survey in Virginia revealed that the highest mortality among teaching personnel occurs during the first three years of service. It is during this critical orientation period that supervision can perform its most valuable service by assisting young teachers with their occupational adjustment.

It must be remembered that the state and society in general have an enormous economic investment as well as a considerable social investment in every teacher education graduate. These investments must be protected and secured for future benefits. A prudent businessman does not allow his production facilities to be lost through the lack of maintenance services. The implied analogy is clear. Supervision or professional consultative services is a *maintenance service* for the beginning teacher. Inservice teacher education is a major function, and state and local supervision is first, last and always teacher education on a continuing basis.

The effective supervisor is of necessity a person of multiple interests and responsibilities. He is a master teacher, adept at public relations, a guidance counselor, a diplomat, an organizer, and an administrator. On occasion he has the responsibility for rather large financial resources. His fundamental function, as has been said, is the improvement of instruction. But that general objective is accomplished through many channels. Program planning may be the starting point. Course content must be determined. Sequence of courses will be decided. Differentiated curricula will be adopted. Provision will be made for functional housing and equipment. All of these factors are contributory to the ultimate objective of improved instruction. All these items also imply perpetual planning and continuing working relationships with teachers, principals, superintendents, directors of instruction, and with outside agencies.

Most of the above items require substantial budget provision. It is, therefore, the supervisor's responsibility to anticipate the budget requirements both for short-term needs and for long-range requirements. Securing any kind of budget requires realistic planning and convincing selling. *Planning* is the key to most all accomplishments in the administrative phase of the supervisor's job. In the case of functional buildings, a carefully drawn plan complete with architectural drawings and descriptive treatment is necessary.[3]

The type and amount of furniture and equipment must be described in a manual of specifications, the compilation or approval of which is the responsibility of the supervisor.

Business departments that do not maintain intimate contacts with representatives of business itself are seriously handicapped in their efforts to provide a practical type of occupational training. Since the classroom teacher usually has rather limited opportunity to observe business practice and little opportunity to discuss such matters with employment managers and section supervisors, this kind of relationship is too seldom accomplished unless there is a supervisory staff. This is not to say that all business teachers should not maintain the closest possible contact with business, for it is most desirable that they cultivate such associations at every opportunity even to the point of periodically acquiring actual business experience during summer months.

There are many associations involving policy and major working relationships that only the supervisor can handle properly. Some of these are directing community-wide surveys; setting up joint educational efforts with organizations and institutions; establishing programs of cooperative work training; conducting conferences with business leaders and other school officials; participating in conferences and workshops; and preparing study guides and courses of study.

PERFORMANCE STANDARDS

It is not the function of supervision to regulate or organize to the point of reducing all schools to a "standard" pattern. To do so would only accomplish stagnation. To be sure, certain minimal standards should be set by all schools within an administrative division. This objective can best be accomplished through the cooperative efforts of the several schools with the cooperative leadership and coordinating influence of supervision. In recent months such joint planning conferences embracing from six to eight different high schools of a school division have been held with all business teachers participating. In these conferences the two-day meetings were arranged by the director of secondary schools for the division with the state supervisor participating as a consultant.

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[3] Virginia State Department of Education. *Virginia School Planning Manual*, Revised Edition. Richmond, State Dept. of Education, 1959. Section 42: Business Education.

Results of such conferences do not adversely affect the individual school in setting its own range for accomplishing goals in the skill subjects. The conferences do serve to stimulate the least effective teachers to strive to achieve results obtained by the most effective teachers. Often classroom experimentation grows out of conference discussions. In that respect individual initiative is stimulated. Conformity is never to be the terminal goal. On the contrary, stimulation of individuality and initiative must be the end result.

RELATION TO EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

One of the larger functions of supervision is its research activities pursued either independently or in conjunction with other educational institutions and organizations. Just now there is great need for statistical summaries of student enrollment in the various business subjects. The profession needs this type of information on a year-to-year basis in order to understand better the status and the trend of secondary school business education. These data should be available for each state and for the country at large. Incidentally, this type of data is available from less than five of the fifty states and national figures are not to be had from any source for there is virtually no provision for research in business education in the U.S. Office of Education. This is a situation that should be deeply deplored by all business leaders. The research facilities of the universities, the Research Division of the National Business Education Association, and Delta Pi Epsilon provide fine services, but they are handicapped in gathering and processing much of the statistical data from cities and states. But these data are necessary in order to know the current status and the trends in business education. It appears that only city, state and national consultative services can give this kind of periodic information.

Table 1 below will indicate the trends in enrollment in one state over a period of eight years:

Table 1[4]

Year	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63
Enrollment	77,278	77,316	79,998	83,985	89,389	92,840	92,686	99,093

How effective is supervision? What is the measure of its value? It might be assumed that the prevalence of supervision would indicate the answer to these questions, but let us look at the extent of supervisory services that provide for business education. THE NATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION QUARTERLY, Vol. 29, No. 4 for the summer of 1961 lists 40 supervisors in 37 cities whose job is to work with *all* phases of business education. These numbers show an increase from 35 and 34 since 1955. For the office occupations and distributive occupations, 44 supervisors are listed in 35 cities whose work is restricted to the office occupations phase only. The increase in this category jumped from 23 to 20 respectively since 1955. Forty-five supervisors in 42 cities are listed for distributive occupations only. These figures show a decline from 49 and 49 respectively since 1955. These changes in numbers seem to indicate a healthy development in supervision in office occupations for counties and cities. Certainly one would be correct in assuming that the incidence of supervision in the cities of America is not based entirely on need nor on the effectiveness of such services but more largely because of federal or state financial assistance. A similar picture is seen from an examination of the frequency of supervision at the state level. The 1961 Administrators Issue of the NATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION QUARTERLY also shows 21 persons in 14 different states whose activities include both business education and distributive education; 21 persons in 11 states are assigned to business education only; but 46 persons in 32 different states are assigned to distributive education only. Here again, the trend seems to be for an expansion in supervision for the "total program" and for office occupations only. On the state level, the trend for supervision for distributive education only is upward.

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[4] Virginia State Department of Education. *Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Virginia, 1962-63.* Richmond, the Department, 1963. p. 119.

With the enactment of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 on December 18, 1963, the program of business and office occupations at the in-school, post-high school and adult education levels became eligible for large federal grants in aid. Specific reference is made in the Act, Section 4, Paragraph 6, for funds for "Ancillary services and activities to assure quality in all vocational education programs. These may include in-service teacher training and supervision, program evaluation, special demonstration and experimental programs, development of instructional materials, and State administration and leadership." Assuming that full or substantial appropriations will be forthcoming and the professional leaders in each state make a strong and positive projection of needs for business education, we should have many additions at the local, state and national levels to the supervisory staff.

Therefore, it would seem logical to assume that the frequency of supervision both in the cities and in the states is not directly a result of felt need or because of demonstrated results, but more often a result of grants-in-aid from the state and federal governments.

It is probably safe to assume that the employment of a supervisor comes about quite largely because of his administrative function as well as his ability to improve instruction. In fact it is known that some supervisors spend most of their time with administrative problems. However, the improvement of instruction is the basic need and forms a considerable part of the responsibility and the activities of most supervisors.

Some of the obvious indices of the effectiveness of supervision are these:

1. Encouraging increased professionalization of teachers through school visitation
2. Holding conferences with teachers and other school administrative personnel
3. Sponsoring workshops and other in-service teacher education activities
4. Production of courses of study, teaching aids, and similar other pursuits
5. Conducting surveys and research projects in business education
6. Gathering and distributing supplementary teaching materials
7. Representing the interest of business education in administrative staff meetings.

CHAPTER 7

Responsibilities of the State Department of Education for the Administration and Supervision of Business Education

Harry Huffman

Who gives the responsibility? Leadership in improving instruction is the hallmark of a state department of education. In a statement prepared by the Chief of the Bureau of Business Education, California State Department of Education, is the statement that this responsibility for improving instruction is delegated by the people to the state department of education.

> The State Department of Education has the responsibility for providing leadership in establishing, maintaining, and improving instruction in the public schools of the state. This responsibility has been delegated by the people as specified by various sections of the *California Education Code* and in the rules, regulations, and actions of the State Board of Education. In carrying out this responsibility, the State Department of Education is committed to develop, seek, and promote the most effective instructional methods, materials, and facilities.—R. C. VAN WAGENEN, Chief, Bureau of Business Education, California State Department of Education.

This leadership is classified as both administrative and supervisory in nature. In general, the administrative responsibilities are specifically defined by law and frequently involve state and federally aided programs. Supervisory responsibilities, on the other hand, are stated in more general terms, usually in terms of "improving instruction." When the administrative responsibility is carried out properly, it is assumed that an instructional program exists. Once the program exists, the responsibility for improving it so that it meets the changing needs of the state begins immediately. Without the supervisory function, there are only bricks, books, equipment, and teachers' names. It is supervision that brings education to life and infuses it with purpose, inspiration, and enthusiasm. Supervision tackles the problems of young people. It helps teachers with the selection of subject matter and with better means of helping pupils master subject matter. Mainly, supervision is concerned with people—the students, the parents, the teachers, the school administrators, the business community, and the people of the state. So let us bear in mind that administration establishes the facilities for instruction and that supervision carries out instruction and improves it. Finally, these responsibilities are given as trusts by the people to state departments of education.

CURRENT STATUS OF BUSINESS EDUCATION STATE SUPERVISION

What has happened in the last 20 years in the supervision of business education is significant. A 1941 report from the 48 states follows:

> In a recent survey, 26 state departments of education indicated that supervision was exercised over business education in the public schools of the state. In ten states, private business education was also supervised. Business education is not supervised in 13 states in the case of public schools, and in 26 states no supervi-

> sion is maintained over the business education offered by private schools. Five states have special supervisors for business education. Ten states did not reply to the inquiry.[1]

In 1941, then, essentially 5 states had full-time supervisors of business education; and, of the 26 reporting that there was supervision over business education, the 21 remaining states had someone whose job, among other responsibilities, included supervision of business education.

In 1962, the report for 50 states, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, and Washington, D. C., was as follows:

> *On the state level* there were different patterns of supervision and administration; a breakdown of the states, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands, and Washington, D. C., follows:
>
> | | |
> |---|---|
> | States with no business education service | 28 |
> | States with full-time business education service | 13 |
> | States with part-time business education service | 12 |
> | Total | 53 |
>
> In the 13 states having full-time business education service, the majority were under the supervision of the state director of vocational education, and in the remaining states the business education service was under the supervision of a person in general education.
>
> In the 12 states that had part-time business education service, the time, in all probability, was divided between the supervision and administration of business education and distributive education. These supervisors were under the state director of vocational education.[2]

Even though the report shows only 25 states with business education supervisors, the picture has drastically changed. There are now 13 states with full-time business education supervisors. (It is not within the scope of this chapter to discuss issues involving the supervision of various specialties of business and distributive education. The important point to observe here is full-time supervision.) Over a period of about 20 years full-time supervision of business education has increased from 5 states to 13 states. Much progress has been made, and yet much opportunity exists for developing more full-time state supervision. This opportunity largely belongs to those with a vision of the growing needs of young people in a changing economy of industrialization, automation, and technology. It belongs not only to those who envision a better life for young people but also to those who want to do something constructive about providing for this better life.

THE NEED FOR STATE SUPERVISION EVOLVES

At this point, one might recognize the need for state supervision of business education. But look at the problem through the eyes of the hard-pressed taxpayer and answer his question: "What is the real justification?" The answer is found in an official Illinois state publication. The writing in state publications normally is not very interesting, but the following statement takes one back to the origin of the Illinois public school system, and in a few words shows the necessity for leadership through the office of the superintendent of public instruction, and finally presents the necessity for supervision. Article VIII of the Constitution of Illinois states:

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[1] Kibbey, Ira W., and Blackler, William R. "In State Departments of Education." *National Business Education Outlook*, 1941. National Business Teachers Association, p. 12.

[2] Selden, William. "Evaluating the Effectiveness of Business Education Supervision on the National, State and Local Levels." *National Business Education Quarterly* 30:18; May 1962.

> The General Assembly shall provide a thorough and efficient system of free public schools whereby all the children of this state may receive a good common school education. To implement this state function—to give guidance and direction to common school education in Illinois—the Assembly in 1854 established the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.
>
> Since its creation, this Office has played an increasingly important role in offering educational leadership to the schools of the State. In 1947 the General Assembly enacted legislation which made it mandatory that public schools, elementary and secondary, be "recognized" by the Superintendent of Public Instruction before being entitled to any state aid from the distributive fund. Since evaluation is a necessary prerequisite to a good recognition program, this legislation naturally resulted in increased supervision and educational leadership at the state level.[3]

HOW ONE STATE ESTABLISHED THE NEED FOR FULL TIME SUPERVISION OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

Perhaps the best way to justify the need for state supervision in business education is by means of significant facts gathered through state-wide research. The establishment of the position of business education consultant for the Florida State Department of Education was partly the result of a statement prepared by the business teachers of Florida, growing out of research conducted by Binford Peeples at Florida State University.

> The need for a consultant in business education in Florida is substantiated by the following facts. Binford Peeples, in writing a master's thesis at Florida State University, made a study of the need for supervision of business education in Florida. He discovered that the total student enrollment in the last three grade divisions of the accredited high schools in Florida was 52,404. He further learned that there were 30 different courses offered by the business education departments of the accredited high schools in Florida with total class enrollments of nearly 38,000. These data indicate that a large number of students in the accredited high schools are enrolled in business subjects.
>
> In surveying the teachers of the state, Peeples received a limited response of 166 of the 324 business teachers employed in the accredited schools. From the number returning the questionnaire, it was learned that business education was the major field of study of 51 of the teachers, or 30.72 per cent. Whereas some of the teachers reported major fields of study in closely related areas, it can be concluded that there are many business teachers in the state who are not specifically prepared for the field of business teaching and who could profit from in-service education programs.—Joseph R. Barkley, Consultant for Business Education, Florida State Department of Education.

Dramatic evidence showed that the improvement of instruction was needed and the means should be inservice education programs under the direction of a state supervisor.

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[3] Illinois State Department of Public Instruction. *Guide to Supervision, Evaluation, and Recognition of Illinois Schools.* Report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield: the Department, 1958. p. 3.

RESPONSIBILITY AS ESTABLISHED IN THE DIVISION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Business education supervision may be established in either the vocational education or the general education division of the state department of education. Most state supervisors of business education are under the direction of the state director of vocational education. Even so, the general education phases of business education do receive attention in some states. Although the pattern varies from state to state, the trend to recognize and do something about the supervision needs of all business teachers, is on the upgrade.

When business education is under the division of vocational education, one may have a pattern as found in Michigan:

> We in the Distributive and Office Education Service of the Division of Vocational Education have as our major responsibility the administration of vocational business education programs reimbursed from state and/or Federal vocational funds. We offer consultative services to local schools and community colleges interested in, or operating, cooperative education programs in the distributive or office education fields and adult extension classes in the field of distribution. In connection with our major role, we also may assist local schools in business education curriculum studies in cooperation with the Michigan teacher-education institutions preparing business education teachers.—LAWRENCE T. THOMSON, Chief, Distributive and Office Education, Division of Vocational Education, Michigan State Department of Public Instruction.

New York had the first definite program for state supervision of business education, beginning in 1898.[4] New York also places the Bureau of Business and Distributive Education under vocational education. The supervision program, however, has become broad and provides for all phases of business education as shown by the following informal statement by John E. Whitcraft.

> To provide educational leadership at the state level, through a variety of carefully tested leadership activities and functions, especially designed for the assistance and guidance of local education leaders and teachers to assist them in the initiation, development, and subsequent improvement of programs (including instruction) of business and distributive education in selected special areas which are offered in the junior high or early secondary schools; the public, private, and parochial secondary schools; the registered and approved special private business schools; and in those adult business and distributive education programs offered by the public school systems in New York State.—JOHN E. WHITCRAFT, Chief, Bureau of Business and Distributive Education, New York State Department of Education.

Additional statements were made by Mr. Whitcraft about services to private institutions of higher education and to other branches of the state department. Also, reference is made to other supervisory services such as:

> . . . to provide those supervisory services that are essential for the (a) administration of state and federal regulations pertaining to distributive education, (b) administration of state regulations and policies governing the registration of and/or approval of registered and special private business schools, and (c) administration of federal regulations governing the approval and supervision of registered

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[4] Tonne, Herbert. "History and Status of Administration and Supervision of Business Education." *National Business Education Quarterly* 30:11; May 1962.

and approved special private business schools relative to training veterans under Public Law 85-857, 85th Congress.

The titles of three recent publications also provide insight into the scope of supervision of business education in New York State. They are: "The School Administrator Looks at Nonvocational, General and Personal Use Values of Business Education," "The School Administrator Looks at Vocational Business Education," and "The School Administrator Looks at Cooperative Business and Distributive Education Work-Experience Programs."

In Wisconsin, the state supervisor of business education serves the technical institute programs for high school graduates; at the present time, he does not supervise high school business programs. A brief description appears next:

> For a number of years many of the Wisconsin schools of vocational and adult education have organized their educational planning in order to develop opportunities for those youths and adults who seek suitable post-secondary education in the office and distributive occupations. This has resulted in the establishment of many courses of a post-secondary vocational technical character. Such courses are presently in operation in a number of the schools of vocational and adult education.[5]

SPECIFIC AND DETAILED RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE STATE SUPERVISOR

There have been many statements of the functions and responsibilities of state supervisors for business education in previous issues of the NATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION QUARTERLY devoted to administration and supervision. In this chapter, these responsibilities will be examined in terms of formal and informal statements of the state supervisors themselves.

1. *Administrative.* An official work description from the Virginia State Board of Education describes the administrative part of the work as follows:

> A considerable portion of the Supervisor's time is devoted to the administrative aspect of the position. The principal duties and activities under this heading relate to: (a) planning the annual and biennial budget for the Service; (b) advising teachers, principals, and superintendents concerning the purchase and use of office appliances and machines used in the instructional program; (c) making allocations of funds and approving quarterly requisitions for state funds; and (d) maintaining liaison with businessmen and business organizations in an effort to learn of training needs and to interpret to business the objectives of the Service. —A. L. WALKER, State Supervisor of Business Education, Virginia State Board of Education.

2. *Leadership.* All informal and formal statements of state supervisors include a description of the leadership function. Here is one description:

> The Bureau of Business Education in its leadership role is committed to:
> 1. Being sensitive to the changing educational needs of business,
> 2. becoming aware of progress being made in improving instruction, and

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[5] Wisconsin State Board of Vocational and Adult Education. *Technical Institute Program: Business Administration, Accounting, Secretarial Science, Marketing.* Madison: the Board, 1961. p. 1.

> 3. developing a workable plan to assist school districts to keep their business education programs up to date and geared to our changing technology.—R. C. VAN WAGENEN, Chief, Bureau of Business Education, California State Department of Education.

> It should be the responsibility of the supervisor to provide this leadership by (1) *setting goals* for business education through course materials, providing teaching materials, organizing workshops or college course helps, with the assistance of business education teachers; (2) *encouraging improvements* for business education which might take the form of experimental work in the use of unusual teaching methods, materials, resources, equipment; and (3) *assisting in evaluating* of the state business education program or a district program, striving for as much self-evaluation as possible.—RAYMOND W. HELEY, Nevada State Supervisor of Business and Distributive Education, Nevada State Department of Education.

3. *Statement of Business Education Philosophy.* The following is a typical statement developed cooperatively with a representative committee of business educators:

> We believe that we can best promote normal growth by acknowledging that business education will (1) contribute toward better understandings of everyday business for all students, thereby making its contribution to general education; (2) give to those who desire it the necessary vocational training; (3) provide a springboard for those who undertake advanced study in business or in business education.—From *Business Education for North Dakota High Schools,* North Dakota Department of Public Instruction, 1957.

4. *Guidance in Planning the Curriculum.* The following statement from a publication illustrates another supervisory responsibility:

> The purpose of this publication is to offer planning guidance to administrators, secondary school business teachers, and other local school personnel who assume responsibilities for the planning of business-economic education programs in the secondary schools of the State of Idaho.
>
> As the title indicates, this bulletin is a guide for curriculum planning. Local educational needs should play a large part in determining programs in business-economic education for each community. These provisions for business-economic education in the secondary schools are generally applicable to the public schools of Idaho. Nevertheless, specific application of the various recommendations and suggestions should be considered only after study and discussion of local conditions. It is with these thoughts in mind that the recommendations are offered by the committee.—From *Idaho Curriculum Planning Guide for Business-Economic Education,* Idaho State Board of Vocational Education, 1961.

5. *Curriculum Evaluation.* Here is a formal statement by Carl W. Baisch, Superintendent of Schools, Kenmore, New York:

> The chief school administrative officer of any school system, be it large or small, knows his most important task is that of improving instruction. Constant evaluation of the curriculum and means of improving its quality must take priority.
>
> The pressures of budgets, building, proponents of crash programs and others too numerous to mention cause many anxious moments and frustrations. This should not result in neglecting those areas of learning which have proved their true worth. The latter must be retained and strengthened.
>
> One such area in our school system is that of business education. We appreciate the outstanding work of our teachers in this field. Business education in our two comprehensive senior high schools is a most important segment. It prepares

more than one-third of the pupils in general education and for employment immediately, upon graduation; it has played and will continue to play a major role.[6]

6. *Pre-service Education of Business Teachers.* Nearly all business education supervisors are concerned with the improvement of the undergraduate preparation of business teachers.

> An important function of the Supervisor of Business Education is working with the teacher education departments of the various colleges in an effort to improve teacher education curriculums and to encourage an expansion of enrollments in pre-service teacher education. Conferences are held each year for the coordinators of the Cooperative Office Training program (V.O.T.) in an effort to vitalize this particular area of vocational education.—A. L. Walker, State Supervisor of Business Education, Virginia State Board of Education.

7. *In-Service Training of Business Teachers.* There is almost universal agreement among business education supervisors that in-service education for business teachers should occupy the lion's share of their time:

> Probably the most important single responsibility of a supervisor of business education is that of planning and administering an effective and well-organized continuous program of in-service training for the business-education teachers under his supervision. Viewed broadly, every professional association of the supervisor with a teacher is an opportunity for in-service education; however, the planned program of in-service training is most important.—Gladys Peck, State Supervisor of Business Education, Louisiana State Department of Education.
>
> Most of the State Supervisor's time is devoted to the improvement of business education in the high schools and colleges. This function is achieved largely through observation, consultation, and supervisory procedures. Frequent visitations of classrooms and participation in followup conferences resulting from observation in instruction occur. Conferences and workshops are held for teachers on a local, area, and state-wide basis. The supervisor often conducts these conferences and workshops and frequently serves as a resource person upon invitation from the local superintendent of schools.—A. L. Walker, Supervisor of Business Education, Virginia State Board of Education.
>
> At all times the Business Education Service tries to provide leadership for the planning and carrying out of a well-organized and continuous program of in-service education for business teachers. It also strives to stimulate a desire for professional growth by constantly encouraging teachers to attend local, state, regional and national meetings of professional groups. Business teachers are also encouraged to read up-to-date books and periodicals on business education.—Zenobia T. Liles, Area Supervisor of Business Education Service, Georgia State Department of Education.

8. *Workshops.* Some state supervisors conduct a variety of workshops to upgrade teachers:

> First, there are the county-wide or small-area workshops, usually from two to five days in duration, and attended by all the teachers in the area. These workshops are held in late summer or early fall, just prior to the opening of school; and, after a brief general program, the group is broken down into specialized fields, a state supervisor serving as consultant for each field.

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[6] As quoted by John E. Whitcraft. *The School Administrator Looks at Vocational Business Education.* Albany: New York State Department of Education, 1961. p. 7.

> Another type of workshop that is of much value to teachers is the one- or two-weeks' summer workshop, held on the campus of a college or university. In these workshops, it is the responsibility of the state supervisor to plan, with the help of the teachers, a stimulating and worth-while program, including the services of outstanding consultants and some social and recreational activities. At these workshops, in addition to the excellent study program, the teachers have the advantage of valuable personal relationships, including personal associations and group action.—GLADYS PECK, State Supervisor of Business Education, Louisiana State Department of Education.

9. *Instructional Materials.* The development of syllabi and courses of study is another responsibility:

> An important part of the improvement of instruction in the business departments of the local high schools and collegiate institutions relates to the preparation of instructional materials, study guides, courses of study, listings of pertinent bibliographical materials, and the publication and distributing to business teachers, school principals, and superintendents of a periodic newsletter (*Virginia Business Education Bulletin*). Encouragement and assistance is given to local business teachers in carrying on classroom experimentations in teaching content and procedures.—A. L. WALKER, Supervisor of Business Education, Virginia State Board of Education.

10. *Youth Leadership.* The sponsorship of youth leadership through the Future Business Leaders of America and the Distributive Education Clubs of America is also frequently mentioned by state supervisors:

> State sponsorship of youth leadership activities through state, regional, and local chapters of Future Business Leaders is an integral part of state supervision. Assistance is provided in the conduct of local chapter activities, regional meetings, an annual state convention, summer leadership conference, and participation in the national convention.—A. L. WALKER, Supervisor of Business Education, Virginia State Board of Education
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> Distributive education students, because of their similar occupational goals and their busy schedules, should be provided with co-curricular activities. Club activities can do much to stimulate their interest, give them the social activities they need, and help them in their adjustment toward useful citizenship.—From *Business Education for North Dakota High Schools,* North Dakota Department of Public Instruction, 1957.

11. *Other Types of Responsibilities.* The list of responsibilities as accepted by state supervisors is never ending. They are limited in the service they render only by their time and energy. For example:

> Supervisors (a) assist teachers in obtaining practical experience; (b) assist teachers and guidance counselors in selecting tests and furnishing career information; (c) assist schools in organizing appropriate programs for adults; (d) assist teachers in selecting and offering data-processing instruction; (e) assist business departments in organizing local advisory committees.—H. D. SHOTWELL, Supervisor of Business Education, Kansas State Department of Education.

CHAPTER 8

State Supervision Through Leadership and Services

Frank M. Herndon

Responsibility for the education of its citizens is generally recognized as the right and privilege of the several states comprising the United States of America. Although enormous federal expenditures for education have been and are now being made, the United States Government has never formulated a policy of education. The state legislatures, however, have set up the framework within which public education might develop. Long-range planning and exercise of professional leadership of a state's educational system are functions vested in the state departments of education. The functions of state departments of education are implemented through the services which they render.

Any over-all improvement in education must be reflected necessarily in an improvement in all areas of education. If improvement is effected through the services rendered by state departments of education, it follows that appropriate services to all areas of education are necessary if over-all improvement of education is to result.

The responsibility of states in exercising democratic supervisory leadership to all areas of education is widely acknowledged. However, the literature relating to state supervisory programs, including findings of relative research, indicates inadequate staffs and programs of services to business teachers and school administrators in many states. For example, only 23 of the 50 state departments of education are staffed by one or more persons responsible for a comprehensive program of services to business education.[1] While 19 additional states provide supervisory services for the distributive phase of business education, a total of 27 states are neglecting to provide a comprehensive program of services for business education which would include preparation for business and office occupations.[2] All state departments of education, including those employing supervisory personnel for business education, should continuously evaluate their programs of services for this important aspect of a state's educational program.

The desirability of the following services was established by relative ratings assigned by representatives of 34 state departments of education and 43 business educators.[3] As is true with such a list, additional services should be identified and incorporated in the list in light of current developments and, in this case, with particular reference to the Vocational Education Act of 1963. With this in mind, the services enumerated in this chapter might well serve as a checklist to determine the adequacy of services rendered by a state department of education.

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[1] Directory of State Supervisors of Business Education, *National Business Education Quarterly* 31:82, May 1963.

[2] The Policies Commission for Business-Economic Education has defined *business education* and *business and office occupations*, as follows:

> *Business Education* is concerned with (1) the knowledge, attitudes, and non-vocational skills needed by all persons to be effective in their personal business affairs and in their understanding of and participation in our economic system as citizens, and with (2) the vocational preparation for business occupations, including that required for initial employment, that involved in retraining, that needed for advancement in business careers and that involved in making an effective individual business contribution and thereby helping to improve our business system.
>
> As used in the Vocational Education Act of 1963, *business and office occupations* are those occupations in public and private enterprises which include, but are not limited to, the business phases of (1) planning, organizing, and managing the enterprise, and (2) communicating, recording, processing, interpreting, storing, and retrieving data and other informatiton.

Supervisory needs of business education seem great as they relate to teacher preparation and staffing, curriculum problems, instructional materials, student organizations, research, in-service education, personal and public relations, selection and maintenance of equipment, evaluation of programs, student evaluation, guidance, and the over-all improvement of instruction.

DESIRABLE SERVICES

Broad areas of needed services for business education are likely to be generally recognized. However, a list of specific services considered to be desirable may not be generally available.

Each of the services was rated on a scale similar to the one following, with positions on the scale indicating varying degrees of relative desirability:

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|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
0              5              10             15             20
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0 — The service is undesirable.

1 - 4 — The service is slightly desirable, but when compared with other services is very low.

5 - 9 — The service is more than slightly desirable but should be provided only after provision is made for more important services.

10 - 14 — The service is desirable and its provision will definitely strengthen the program of supervisory services.

15 - 19 — The service is highly desirable, and the lack of this service may seriously affect the efficiency of the supervisory program.

20 — The service is considered imperative to a highly efficient supervisory program.

Eighty services appear in three groups. Each service in the three groups is listed in the order of its importance as disclosed by the arithmetic mean of all ratings assigned that service. Group I lists the services having composite means of 15.00 to 20.00; Group II, the services having composite means of 10.00 to 15.00; Group III, the services having composite means of 5.00 to 10.00.

GROUP I. SERVICES CONSIDERED MOST DESIRABLE IN AN EFFICIENT STATE SUPERVISORY PROGRAM FOR BUSINESS EDUCATION

(The service is highly desirable, and the lack of this service may seriously affect the efficiency of the supervisory program.)

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[3] Herndon, Frank M. "A Study of Supervisory Services for Business Education as Rendered by Departments of Education in Twelve Southern States." Doctoral study. Evanston: Northwestern University, 1953

1. The activities of the supervisory staff are based on clearly stated objectives.
2. The supervisory staff attends state, or regional, or national conventions of professional organizations for business teachers.
3. The supervisory staff maintains membership in state, regional, and national professional organizations concerned with business education.
4. Teachers and administrators are encouraged to use the business education services of the state department of education.
5. A close relationship is maintained between the supervisory staff of the state department and administrators and teachers.
6. The supervisor makes periodic reports to the state superintendent of education about needed improvements or additional services that may be rendered by the supervisory staff.
7. The supervisory staff takes an active part in state, regional, and national organizations for business teachers.[4]
8. Provision is made for a continuing study and revision of the business curriculum.
9. The supervisory staff seeks continuous reorganization and enrichment of the business curriculums based upon the needs, interests, and aptitudes of pupils and in line with changing community needs.
10. Area or district conferences are a part of the supervisory program.
11. The supervisor makes periodic reports to the state superintendent of education about achievements and supervisory activities in the area of business education.[4]
12. The supervisory staff is acquainted with the supervisory programs in other states.[4]
13. The counsel of recognized leaders in business education is sought in making revisions in certification requirements.[4]
14. The supervisory program is cooperatively planned by supervisors, teachers, administrators, pupils, and community members based on an analysis of needs and resources.
15. When appropriate, a conference is held with the school administrators to discuss the need for adequate equipment.
16. Recommendations for the improvement of facilities and equipment are made by the supervisor when he visits the schools.
17. Teachers are informed of significant activities and practices as observed by the supervisory staff.[4]
18. Teachers are organized into committees to study problems of state-wide nature.[4]
19. Equipment and layout standards for the business education departments of the secondary schools of the state have been established, and efforts are made to acquaint administrators and teachers with these standards.[4]

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[4] Service rated Group II by state departments of education.

20. The supervisory staff actively attempts to bring businessmen and teachers into closer association.
21. Definite plans are formulated for expanded services to business education.[4]
22. Assistance is offered schools in establishing business education programs based on local needs as disclosed by occupational surveys and follow-up studies of graduates.
23. Bulletins are issued from time to time which call attention to significant research studies of particular value and interest to the business teachers of the state.[4]
24. Teachers are encouraged to affiliate with the state, regional, and national organizations for business teachers.[4]
25. Teachers are given information about the availability of new instructional films and other teaching aids.[4]
26. A continuous program for the development of instructional materials is maintained.[4]
27. Supervisors render assistance to teachers and administrators in the establishment of basic business education courses.
28. The creation of work-experience programs for secondary-school youth is encouraged.[5]
29. The supervisory staff cooperates with teachers and others engaged in research studies related to business education.[4]

GROUP II. SERVICES CONSIDERED DESIRABLE IN STRENGTHENING A STATE SUPERVISORY PROGRAM FOR BUSINESS EDUCATION

(The service is desirable and its provision will definitely strengthen the program of supervisory services.)

30. The supervisory staff is concerned with problems of adjusting loads securing materials, and improving physical conditions surrounding teaching and learning.[6]
31. Teachers are informed of the availability of free and inexpensive materials useful in developing consumer competencies.[6]
32. Initiative is taken in providing teachers with up-to-date courses of study for various business subjects.[6]
33. When deficiencies in facilities or equipment are observed by the supervisor, a written recommendation for the needed improvements is made to the school's chief administrator.[6]
34. Studies are made of enrollment trends in business subjects.[6]
35. Objective evaluations of the business education programs of the secondary schools are made at regular intervals by the state supervisory staff.[6]
36. The organization of local student groups, such as Future Business Leaders of America, is encouraged.[6]

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[5] Service rated Group II by business educators.
[6] Service rated Group I by business educators.

37. Reports are made periodically to business teachers regarding the availability of recommended teaching aids for business subjects.[6]
38. Applications for certificates to teach business subjects are processed by the business education service or in conjunction with the certification division of the state department of education.
39. Suggestions are made pertaining to evaluation of current courses in business education.[6]
40. Teachers are notified of the dates of professional meetings within the state, region, and nation.[6]
41. The opinions of business teachers of the state are sought in connection with the adoption of textbooks.
42. Active support is given to the organization and/or activities of a statewide youth program for students of business subjects.
43. Liaison with school counselors is established so that assistance may be given in all phases of education including business.
44. A communication, such as a newsletter for teachers, local supervisors, and others interested in business education, is published periodically.[6]
45. Suggestions are made as to ways in which the counselor and the teacher of business subjects may be of mutual assistance.
46. Supervisory staff participate in "career day" programs
47. Emphasis is placed on personal contacts with business firms by the supervisory staff.
48. A library is maintained of periodicals and professional books and materials related to business education.
49. Teachers are informed of significant outcomes of professional meetings.
50. Teachers are encouraged to visit the offices of the supervisory staff.
51. Suggestions are made pertaining to the units of instruction in basic business education courses.
52. A directory of business teachers within the state is maintained.
53. A handbook for business teachers new to the state system is available.
54. The supervisor assists teachers and administrators in making occupational, equipment, and student-interest surveys.
55. Suggestions and recommendations are made regarding testing programs.
56. Studies are made of certification requirements of other states.
57. A workshop of several days' duration for business education teachers is annually sponsored or arranged by the state department of education.
58. Achievement standards have been established for the skill subjects.
59. Publications are issued, including bibliographies, occupational briefs, and descriptions of employment opportunities in business occupations.
60. The supervisor of business education serves in an advisory capacity in the state adoption of business education textbooks.
61. Administrators and teachers are assisted in the selection of instructional materials for adult classes in business education.

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[7] Service rated Group I by state departments of education.

[8] Service rated Group III by business educators.

[9] Service rated Group III by state departments of education.

62. Instructional units for various business subjects are prepared and disseminated.
63. Administrators are informed of financial assistance available through the state department for general continuation classes in business education.
64. Teachers are informed of business education programs in other schools of the state.
65. Administrators and teachers are assisted in establishing advisory committees to participate in the promotion of adult-education groups.
66. Teachers and administrators are acquainted with the state department's library of business education materials and these materials are made available to them.
67. Publicity is given through the daily newspapers to the activities of the business education service of the state department of education.
68. Library material on business employment is circularized.
69. Reports are solicited from teachers regarding major activities for the year.
70. Motion pictures on various business occupations and types of careers in business are shown before groups of secondary-school youth.
71. The cooperation of chambers of commerce and other organizations of businessmen is solicited in promoting the adult classes in business education.
72. Talks are made before local student groups about occupational requirements.
73. The supervisor is prepared to assist administrators in securing competent personnel for local teaching positions.
74. Exploratory courses in business education are encouraged.[8]
75. Radio programs are arranged to publicize the activities of the business education service of the state department of education.[9]

GROUP III. SERVICES CONSIDERED LEAST DESIRABLE IN A STATE SUPERVISORY PROGRAM FOR BUSINESS EDUCATION

(The service is more than slightly desirable but should be provided only after provision is made for more important services.)

76. The supervisor is prepared to assist teachers in securing satisfactory teaching positions within the state.
77. The supervisor encourages teachers to attend professional meetings by arranging car pools, or chartering buses, or securing special railway accommodations, and the like, for groups of teachers.[10]
78. Reimbursement is made to local schools for certain costs involved in conducting significant research studies designed to improve the present business education program.[10]
79. Teachers are provided a directory of business teachers within the state.
80. The supervisor may offer to teach a demonstration class while visiting local schools in order that the teacher may observe his methods.

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[10] Service rated Group II by business educators.

CHAPTER 9

The Characteristics of a Good State Supervisor of Business Education

John M. Chrismer

As established by the Federal Constitution of the United States, public education is a function and responsibility of the state. The carrying out of this responsibility is assigned to the executive officer of the state department of education. He, in turn, delegates the responsibility to the appropriate division and specific person or persons.

State supervision of business education is necessary to (a) carry out the responsibilities assigned by the state constitution, and (b) enable local school systems to have the supplementary services offered at the state level by a person or persons specializing in business education.

WHAT IS A STATE SUPERVISOR OF BUSINESS EDUCATION?

A state supervisor of business education is a person responsible for the business education programs offered by the public schools in the state. He is a member of the state department of education staff and is the official representative of the state superintendent of schools. The state supervisor is responsible for the administration and supervision of business education in the state. His function is to render services that cannot or are not being rendered at the local level or that can more effectively be offered at the state level. Whether the state supervisory staff consists of one person or of several, the basic function and responsibilities remain the same.

ROLE OF THE STATE SUPERVISOR OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

Since the underlying purpose of all supervision is to provide the best possible instructional program for the students, a supervisor works with the teachers toward the improvement of instruction. The state supervisor has the additional responsibility of coordinating the business education offerings on a statewide basis. He is in a position to plan for the future, advise, organize, coordinate activities, and evaluate results. He is also in a position to conduct research and to encourage others to conduct research. Although the role of state supervisor is considered in relation to the public schools, he should be willing and available as state policy provides to work in an advisory capacity with other schools to help them develop good business education programs.

For the purposes of this discussion, the functions of the state supervisor are divided into liaison activities, supervision, administration, and professional leadership. These are overlapping functions but will serve as a basis for analyzing the role of the state supervisor of business education.

Liaison Activities. One of the major functions of the state supervisor is that of liaison. He is in a key position for communications in all directions concerning business education. The supervisor is a direct liaison between the state department of education and the local school systems. He can keep the local schools informed of the latest events, developments, and plans. He can be a liaison between the local school systems and serve as a clearing house for information and ideas. He has a liaison function between the state department of education and the United States Office of Education. The state supervisor is the representative of business education within the state department of education. Here he must keep the remainder of the staff informed about business education and help develop and maintain its proper position in the state educational structure.

The state supervisor of business education is also a liaison between education and business at the state level. He has the opportunity of helping business gain an understanding and appreciation of business education and what it is doing. Frequently his contacts can result in more and better relationships between education and business on the local community level.

Throughout all of these activities, the state supervisor must create and maintain good public relations for business education. As a part of his public relations, he should maintain a good publicity program, accepting writing and speaking engagements, and keeping the public informed of pertinent business education activities through the various news media.

Supervision. The direct responsibilities of the supervisor include visiting classes, holding individual conferences with teachers, developing specific course content, and working with local school supervisors and administrators in curriculum planning and related problems concerning business education. The duties also include conducting group conferences, encouraging local schools to offer adult classes, and helping the schools develop a complete business education program to fit the needs of their communities and students. These activities are all pointed toward helping the teachers offer the best possible program of instruction for the students.

Closely related to the supervisory activities is the development of instructional aids, the conducting of evaluation studies, and the conducting of research relating to business education.

Administration. The duties of most state supervisors will involve a number of administrative activities. For example, the supervisor may administer state and federal funds that are available. He may review credentials for teacher certification and he may make specific recommendations for the hiring or dismissing of teachers. He may evaluate and recommend local school programs for accreditation purposes. These activities are sometimes not considered as a part of supervision, but in actual practice nearly all supervisors find themselves directly involved in such administrative activities.

Professional Leadership. Another major function of the state supervisor is to provide professional leadership for business education. As a member of the staff of the chief state school officer, his position represents the highest educational authority in the state. He is the person to set the stage and provide the necessary leadership for business education to establish and maintain a high professional level.

QUALIFICATIONS OF A GOOD STATE SUPERVISOR OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

The background qualifications for a good state supervisor of business education will be considered in three areas: (a) educational preparation, (b) teaching experience, and (c) business experience.

Educational Preparation. A good state supervisor is one who will bring out the best performance of the persons with whom he works and encourage them to improve and become more proficient; in fact, some may become more proficient in their particular areas than the supervisor. The supervisor, himself, is in a continual process of personal growth and development. His formal educational preparation should include a master's degree and preferably a doctor's degree. The degree(s) should be in business education or in a field directly related to business education. For example, the supervisor may have a major in business education and a minor in school administration. The courses he pursues should give him a working knowledge of all the areas in business education.

Technical Preparation. The technical preparation of the state supervisor should result in an understanding of all the subject or content areas relating to business education; for example, he must know typewriting, shorthand, and the other subjects involved in the office skills area. What do these classes contain? Why are they important? How are they used in business? He should also have knowledge and preparation in the areas of business, marketing, and economics to understand fully the purposes and goals of distributive education and the other business courses or programs. An understanding of the business area will also be of benefit by broadening his understanding of the purposes the office skills occupations serve in business. Finally, a broad knowledge of business administration will be of immeasurable help to the supervisor in his contacts with businessmen and business groups.

Sometimes it is questioned whether the supervisor should have a broad general knowledge covering the entire field or be a specialist in one phase of business education. If he is a specialist in one area, that area will probably receive greater attention while other areas may be neglected. If the state staff consists of one person, that person should have a broad knowledge of business education—possibly supplemented with greater depth in an area of specialization. If the state staff consists of several persons, it would be well to have a specialist in each major area but with each having an understanding and appreciation of the others.

Professional Preparation. The professional preparation of a state supervisor should include a complete understanding of business education: what it is, where it fits into education, how it functions, and the methods and techniques for conducting a business education program. This should include a knowledge of all areas and levels of business education with a strong background in adult education. It should include teaching skills in more than one subject.

In addition to the methods of teaching, the supervisor should have a thorough understanding of supervision and its role in education. He also needs a background in school administration to understand and appreciate more fully the problems encountered by school superintendents and principals in planning and conducting a total school program.

Teaching Experience. It is essential that a good state supervisor have teaching experience at the secondary school level. This should include a variety of subjects taught at different grade levels and preferably in more than one area, that is, office skills and marketing. A variety of secondary school teaching experiences will help the supervisor gain a better understanding of high school students. It will also help him understand some of the problems faced by the teachers he supervises.

It is highly desirable that the supervisor also have teaching experience in adult programs and, if possible, some college teaching experience. If business education is to perform a more complete job of preparing persons for careers in business and in meeting the needs of business people, it must offer more adult classes and adapt these classes specifically to the needs of the local community. Adult teaching experience will give the supervisor a better background to assist schools in establishing adult classes. College teaching experience will provide background in dealing with the preparation of teachers.

Business Experience. Business experience is also vital to the state supervisor because it provides him with a practical knowledge of how business operates. It will help him keep his thinking and recommendations on a more practical and less theoretical basis. The actual amount of the business experience is not so important as the quality and variety of experiences. Business experience should be sufficient to provide a working knowledge of the areas with which the supervisor has contact in his position. Business experience also will be an important aid to the supervisor in his contacts with business groups. He will have a better understanding of business and the businessmen's problems.

The formal educational preparation provides a basic knowledge of both content and methods. The teaching experience provides the necessary understanding of the work of persons he will be supervising. The business experience offers an opportunity for a better understanding of the needs of business and can result in a more practical application of the courses being taught. A good combination of these three areas will enable the supervisor to know what should be taught to recognize good teaching, and to help teachers improve themselves. It will enable him to evaluate the business education programs, and to keep them as close as possible to the needs of business.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD STATE SUPERVISOR

There are many characteristics desirable in a good state supervisor of business education. For the purposes of this article, they are divided into the five general categories: (a) effective human relations, (b) leadership ability, (c) administrative ability, (d) professionalism, and (e) personal traits. Each will be discussed separately.

Effective Human Relations. Effective human relations encompasses many qualifications and characteristics. It is the basis for the success or failure of a state supervisor. To be most successful, the state supervisor must like people and enjoy working with them. His normal duties will require that a large portion of his time be devoted to working with individuals or with groups. He will work with fellow staff members, with school administrators, with counselors, with teachers, and possibly with students. He also will have contact with business groups.

The good state supervisor is able to sell himself and business education to those with whom he works. He is able to explain business education in general terms or in detail, to offer suggestions and to work closely with others in developing and conducting instructional programs.

The good state supervisor is a helpful person. He is a person with whom the people he supervises can share their problems. He is willing to be of service to them in every way possible and when assistance is requested, he is prompt in responding. He is a good and understanding listener. He makes an effort to find an opportunity to give a compliment or to offer an expression of recognition or appreciation.

An understanding of people and the ability to work with them successfully is essential for effective human relations. A sound basis from which the supervisor can work is to recognize and respect the worth and dignity of the individual person.

Leadership Ability. A strong trait of a good state supervisor is leadership ability. The supervisor is able to develop a team spirit and a pride in business education among the teachers he supervises—he has them working with him rather than working for him. The supervisor has vision. He helps the teachers meet today's problems and prepare for tomorrow's changes.

The example of leadership the good state supervisor provides inspires the teachers to work toward self-improvement and greater professional growth. It stimulates a desire for further study and for improvement in teaching methods. It instills in the teacher a sense of pride of accomplishment, of confidence in his ability, and of desire to build a better program in the future.

The supervisor has considerable initiative and confidence in himself and the teachers he supervises. He evaluates objectively their programs and their teaching methods. He is willing to accept suggestions and to admit a mistake. He will experiment with new ideas and methods of teaching and will encourage the teachers to try new ideas and methods.

Administrative Ability. The good state supervisor is a person with considerable administrative ability. He is responsible for making progress in business education. This requires the ability to plan with foresight and imagination but also in a realistic manner. He uses sound judgment and is not afraid to make decisions. The supervisor can communicate effectively his plans and ideas to others with clarity, conciseness, and in a convincing manner.

The good state supervisor is an effective organizer. Successful teamwork is dependent upon his organizational ability—ability to get involved, yet to keep all working toward a common goal. His office work is planned to make the best use of available time. The "paper work" and report forms remain constructive. The report forms completed by the teachers are analyzed periodically to keep them effective and requesting only information that is of definite use.

The ability to assign and delegate responsibility is another trait of the good state supervisor. He realizes that his individual capacity is limited both in time and energy. However, his capacity through the delegation of responsibility may be limitless. The well-planned delegation of responsibility can result in a greater team spirit and professional growth for all. Closely related to this delegation of responsibility is the supervisor's ability to recognize the work of others. Here again, his ability to understand people is of value. The approach others use toward a problem, their methods of handling it, even the results they achieve may be different than his own—they all are a part of the "total team" and are to be recognized for what they contribute.

The good state supervisor is able to cope with any budgetary responsibilities required by his position. He is able to plan the use of funds and administer these plans.

Throughout all of the various responsibilities he performs, the good state supervisor is consistent in what he is doing. He is firm and persistent in following through with decisions that he has made.

Professionalism. The teachers look to the state supervisor as one who will set and maintain a high level of professionalism. He is a person who knows business education, and the suggested background of experience and training provide a sound basis. However, he must continually progress and improve. He spends time regularly doing professional reading and reviewing research in order to remain up to date with the latest methods and trends. He keeps the teachers informed through newsletters and prepares articles for professional journals as time permits.

The good state supervisor is a member of and an active participant in his state, regional, and national professional associations, both in his area of specialization and in general education. This will help him keep abreast of the latest developments, bring recognition to business education in his state, contribute his talents, and serve as an encouraging example for the teachers he supervises.

The good state supervisor of business education knows what is going on in the schools over the state. He also knows why the schools are doing what they are doing and how their activities fit into the particular curriculum of the school. As state supervisor, he has an obligation to each school to understand its program. In case of doubt, he requests the school to justify its curriculum offerings.

Finally, the good state supervisor of business education is a broadminded individual. He is open to suggestion and is willing to consider the viewpoints of others. He is a person who respects the purposes and scope of the federally reimbursed vocational classes but is not restricted by their limitations. He is a person who considers the entire field of business education and the entire education program to meet the needs of the communities in his state.

Personal Traits. There are numerous personal traits needed by the good state supervisor in order to be most effective. Many of these overlap into the areas previously discussed. They are not listed in an order of importance.

The good state supervisor of business education is:

Honest in his work with teachers and administrators—this is essential to gain their confidence.

Fair in his associations with all people—does not slight some and favor others.

Patient at all times—realizes it takes time to develop ideas and bring about desired changes.

Understands people and their actions.

Cooperative in working with others toward accomplishing desired goals.

Adaptable and can adjust his ideas and actions to fit a particular situation.

Dependable in dealing with people—teachers know he will do what he says he will do.

Punctual by being at the right place at the proper time and has things done promptly.

Loyal to business education and to the teachers and other personnel with whom he is working.

Unbiased and willing to consider all aspects of a situation with an open mind.

Decisive and demonstrates the ability to analyze a situation and then make a decision.

Confident in himself, his ability, and his decisions.

Persistent in following through with a project or decision.

Forceful and willing to stand up for a cause in which he believes.

Ambitious to advance and improve himself, business education, and the teachers he supervises.

Tactful in his relationships with people.

The good state supervisor of business education has:

Initiative as a leader in business education.

Self-control even when in a "trying" situation.

Enthusiasm for business education and for his work as state supervisor.

Pride in what he is, or thinks he will be, accomplishing.

Stamina to perform well under a schedule of long hours, travel, and working frequently under pressure of time.

A good appearance at all times—well groomed and appropriately dressed for work.

A pleasing personality that is contagious in his communications with people.

A sense of humility that inspires confidence of all persons with whom he associates.

A good state supervisor of business education is a person with a proper balance of these traits. He is a person who can be patient and understanding yet forceful and decisive. He is a person with pride and enthusiasm for business education. A person with the qualifications and characteristics described is probably the type of supervisor each business education teacher would like to have.

Discussed here have been some suggested qualifications and characteristics for a state supervisor of business education. It may seem they are high and that they set up a position difficult to qualify for and to attain. This is exactly as the position of state supervisor of business education should be—a high-level professional position that only the qualified can attain.

CHAPTER 10

Evaluating the Effectiveness of Business Education Supervision and Administration on the National, State, and Local Levels

William Selden

On the national level supervision and administration of business education is restricted to the vocational or office education phase. Currently a specialist in office education is assigned to the U.S. Office of Education's Division of Vocational Education. The staff in the U.S. Office of Education is expanding in size. The Vocational Education Act of 1963 which makes business education a reimbursable area of vocational education was passed by the national congress and signed by President Lyndon B. Johnson on December 18, 1963.

On the state level there are different patterns of administration and supervision for business education. Presently there are approximately 12 states with at least one full-time business education supervisor. The majority of the supervisors work under the supervision of the state director of vocational education. About the same number of states have a part-time business education supervisor who is also responsible for the distributive education program. These personnel are all under the supervision of the state director of vocational education. With the passage of federal legislation which includes business education, there will be an expansion of state services in this field.

On the local level there are different ways in which the business education supervisory service is organized in relation to the chief school administrative officer (superintendent or supervising principal). For this reason, it is difficult to compare the organizational structure of local business education supervision with that on the national and state levels.

ORGANIZATION AND LIMITATIONS OF SUPERVISION

Business education should be under the supervision of the assistant commissioner of vocational education on the national level and under the supervision of the director of vocational education in state departments of education because of its vocational nature. The philosophy, objectives, and problems of business education are similar to those of other vocational fields.

A large part of this chapter is limited to vocational business education because much of the work on the national and state levels is concentrated here. However, this is not to say that the practical arts or basic business education subjects, such as business economics, business law, and general business, are not most important. In our complex economic society much greater emphasis should be placed upon these subjects. Many business educators fail to recognize that some of the other vocational areas offer more general education than business education.

Business education supervision on the national and state levels is more general than specific On the local level it is for the most part specific. In the development of a specialized program such as business education, it is understandable that local school districts do not want to be dictated to by either the national or state governments. This is as it should be. However, when local school districts request and subsequently receive national or state vocational funds, they are required to meet minimum standards that should make for a better program.

The state directors of vocational education have done much in behalf of business education supervisory and administrative services. Their efforts have made supervision on the national level and in many state departments of education a reality. Before the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, these efforts made possible the use of state vocational, or other, funds in thirteen states to reimburse local school districts for co-operative (work-experience) business education programs. Two other states have been using state vocational funds to reimburse school districts for business education programs on the post high school level.

FEDERAL SUPPORT

To receive vocational funds made available by the national congress the state enters into an agreement, commonly referred to as the State Plan for Vocational Education, with the federal government. In order to qualify for reimbursement, the state must follow the requirements set forth in the state plan.

The active support of business education by the national congress should enable programs in this field to do a more realistic job in preparing students for business offices whose procedures and methods are changing at a breathtaking pace. Here, business teachers will have more opportunities to take in-service training courses, to work closely with businessmen as well as with other vocational educators, and to obtain office machines that are similar to those used by industry. In other words, this legislation should enable business education to do the type of job expected of it. The problems of equipment, subject and time standardization, effective supervision, and job placement will be faced more realistically.

Now that federal support is becoming a reality, business educators in supervisory positions will have many challenging assignments—to use available monies wisely, to develop accepted standards of curricular organization, and to make business teachers more conscious of the demands of business. Mr. Business Education Supervisor, do you accept this challenge?

ANALYSIS OF MANPOWER NEEDS

The clerical and kindred occupations classification has been the fastest growing area of employment since 1900 and represents the second largest occupational group in the nation. It consists of approximately 10.5 million (2.6 million secretaries, stenographers, and typists, and 7.9 million other clerical employees), or 15 per cent of the total employed in America. Between 1900 and 1950 the number of employees in this area increased 725 per cent, and between 1950 and 1960, 32 per cent. It is estimated that by 1975 more than 14 million will be employed in clerical work, which will represent an increase of approximately 45 per cent between 1960 and 1975.

Office work (classified as administrative-clerical) is the second largest occupational group in the military service. More than 20 per cent of the enlisted men and probably 80 per cent of the officers work in this area. Young men who have acquired an occupational skill in a business education program have an excellent opportunity to receive an office assignment in the military service. Transcending the military service, but of equal importance to the defense of America, is the missile industry where 20 to 25 percent of the employees are office workers.

In the evaluation of business education supervision on the national and state levels one might ask: How closely do personnel work with their national and state departments of labor to determine the manpower needs of clerical and related workers, and what attempt has been made to disseminate information about these needs? The question might be raised on the local level: For example, does the supervisor know the approximate number of bookkeepers, general clerks, and stenographers needed annually by local industries? That is, has the local supervisor worked closely enough with businessmen to ascertain their manpower requirements to operate effectively their business in a highly competitive society?

CURRICULUM

The following steps should be taken in developing or in revamping the curriculum: (a) analyze needs, (b) translate needs into educational procedures, (c) organize the curriculum, (d) operate, (e) evaluate, and (f) reanalyze. In addition to making an analysis of the manpower needs, a survey of business offices and a follow-up study of graduates of business departments should be made. The principle of probability must be considered in establishing the curriculum.

Business education supervision on all levels must exercise leadership in the development of the high school and posthigh school curricula as well as programs of adult education. This is a responsibility in initial, refresher, and upgrading training. Also, it may become a responsibility in retraining.

To offer leadership in this area, business education supervisors must work closely with businessmen in determining their needs. Lay advisory committees that are properly organized are helpful in building a realistic curriculum. Cooperative or supervised on-the-job training programs also enable business teachers to work closely with businessmen in the preparation of boys and girls for business.

Here, evaluation might be made by an examination of curriculum publications and the type of work that is done with businessmen. Have you made this evaluation?

DATA PROCESSING

One of the major changes that will take place in the business education curriculum is the inclusion of work in data processing. It is predicted that within ten years three times as many persons will be working in data processing as there are today. This will be an increase of from one to three million employees. Now that business offices are moving into data processing at an increasing rate of speed, schools need to make definite plans to provide instruction in this field.

Offering a unit or two of work in data processing in subjects such as bookkeeping, general business, and office practice is not adequate. Instead, consideration needs to be given to teaching at least a one-semester or a full-year principles or survey course in data processing. This appears to be a step in the right direction as a background in this area is most important for beginning office employees. In a course of this type the following content matter might be covered: history of data processing, terminology common to data processing, available jobs in data processing, equipment used in data processing, and the economic effects of data processing on our way of life.

A course such as this would be taught without the use of equipment. Because of the high cost of equipment and the changes taking place in the manufacturing of same, it is not advisable for any one school to expend too much money for this purpose. As a substitute, data processing classes might take several field trips to business offices equipped with a computer installation. Also, in this course, optimum use should be made of sample forms and visual aids such as films.

What have you done to promote instruction in data processing?

PHYSICAL FACILITIES

As previously indicated, curricula are closely related to the manpower needs of the nation. Also, physical facilities are closely related to the curriculum. Here, a U.S. Office of Education's publication[1] makes the points that follow. (Information has been taken out of context and revised within limitations.)

1. Physical facilities should be carefully planned before a school is constructed or modernized, and office education (vocational business education) personnel should be consulted in this planning. Thought should be given to the possible need to expand the size of the department after the school goes into operation.

2. Equipment should be selected on a long-term basis, and a replacement policy maintained. The development of up-to-date, long-range budget and equipment plans (5- to 10-year period) for this program is advisable. Funds for the maintenance of equipment should be budgeted.

3. The efficiency of the program of instruction in office education is greatly influenced by the physical facilities and available equipment. The plans and specifications for this program in many of the newly constructed schools throughout the nation have been neither adequate nor realistic.

On the state level, the departments of education in California, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and a few others have developed detailed publications on physical facilities that have been most helpful. There is a critical need for more states to develop this type of bulletin. Does your state department of education have a publication on physical facilities?

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[1] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. *Office Education*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, May 1961.

Local supervisors who represent their teachers have the responsibility of working with school administrators, architects, and others to develop the detailed plans of each business education department. Those who will be assigned to teach in this department should play an important role in planning it. Mr. Local Supervisor, do you work with these groups in planning the physical facilities for your business education department?

BUSINESS EDUCATION PUBLICATIONS

Leadership in business education on all levels can be enhanced by the development of carefully planned publications. *Office Education,* previously cited, is an excellent example of what might be done on the national level. In state publications, there is usually a greater degree of specificity as these guides are applicable to a much smaller area; on the local level, publications should be specific with but few generalities included. An example of this follows: The U.S. Office of Education might encourage schools to make a survey of business and a follow-up study of graduates of the business course. State departments of education might develop forms that can be used in doing this type of research. Local supervisors would take these forms, revise them for local use, and do the necessary research. It is also important that publications be developed with the help and assistance of those who might be expected to use the publications. What publication are you, as a supervisor, presently developing?

CONTRIBUTIONS TO PROFESSIONAL LITERATURE

As a means of offering leadership on all levels, supervisors on the national, state, and local levels can make numerous contributions to business education and other periodicals. Since there are a great many publications either directly or indirectly related to business education, it is the professional responsibility of all business education supervisors to contribute to the professional literature of this field. The contributions can be both in the editing and preparation of manuscripts.

From time to time business education supervisors are asked to serve as special editors of magazines such as BUSINESS EDUCATION FORUM. This is an honor and a responsibility not to be shirked. Because a supervisor constantly meets with business teachers, he understands the type of article that the average classroom teacher is interested in reading. Also, he has an opportunity to meet many of the educators who have the background and necessary experience to write timely and useful manuscripts.

There are many occasions when business education supervisors are called upon to write a paper. Because of the time element, it is not always possible to prepare the many articles one is asked to write. Nevertheless, a supervisor should take the time to write a minimum of one document a year. Here the question can be asked: Have you written your article for the current year?

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATION

All business education supervisors have the responsibility of joining and being active in professional business education associations and other associations, such as the National Education Association, American Vocational Association, Administrative Management Society (formerly National Office Management Association), and many others too numerous to mention.

Although there are many professional business education associations, they all deserve the help and support of supervisors in business education. Some of these groups function for the purpose of having conferences or conventions where business educators can meet and exchange ideas. In others the primary function is that of developing publications and other services.

Organizations such as the ones listed afford business education an excellent opportunity to work with educators in other areas as well as with businessmen. This is important because business educators talk too much to each other. We need to work more closely with guidance counselors, school administrators, and businessmen. Are you active and interested in associations other than business education?

PROFESSIONAL SERVICES TO BUSINESS TEACHER EDUCATION SCHOOLS

Business education supervisors on all levels can justify spending some of their time working with colleges, especially those colleges that prepare business teachers. This help can be offered by occasionally talking to business education classes, business clubs, or at special events. Also, assistance can be offered by informing educators at the collegiate level about current trends and problems in business education. This can be done by sending them available enrollment statistics and publications. Do teacher education colleges and universities have your cooperation and support?

CHAPTER 11

The Administrative Implications of Supervisory Problems and Techniques

Leslie J. Whale

All supervisory problems and techniques have administrative implications. It would seem advisable to mention the major responsibilities usually assigned to the administrators who will be considered: the principal of the school, the business teacher, and the business education supervisor.

The principal is the person responsible for the over-all direction and management of the school as an educational enterprise, in a community setting and as a part of the total school system.[1]

The teacher is the leader of assigned groups of pupils, responsible for their safety and instruction while in his charge, and for co-ordinating their activities as parts of their contemporary and of their on-going total school, home, and community education.[2]

The business education supervisor is the individual responsible for assistance and leadership in the improvement of instruction on a city-wide basis in his particular field of specialization.

It can readily be seen by the above statements that the supervisor and administrator are concerned with those problems and techniques which will best assist the teacher in carrying on his work in the classroom.

The supervisory staff is closely associated with the administration in a large school system. The monthly meetings are attended by top administrative officials, such as the superintendent, assistant superintendents, district administrators, the supervisory staff, and the principals of various school units.

Since all supervisory problems and techniques have administrative implications, and since the administrator and the supervisor are both primarily concerned with the improvement of instruction, the problems and techniques in this paper will be discussed as seen by the business education supervisor.

In order to understand better the variety of problems and techniques used, some of the duties, activities, and characteristics of the business education supervisor are listed.

INTRODUCTION OF A NEW COURSE

Each school system will differ in its routine procedures. In a large school system there are many individuals who have to be consulted and sold before any new course can be put into the curriculum, any major problem can be solved, or any new device or technique inaugurated in the teaching program.

For example, in introducing a new course, permission must be secured for an experimental course to be tried. This permission must be given by an assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, the district administrator of the school, the principal, the business department head, and the supervisor who works with the school concerned in setting up the experiment and selecting the teacher.

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[1] Detroit Public Schools. *Administrative Handbook*. Detroit: Board of Education, 1961. p. V15.

[2] *Ibid.*

If the course is a success, the supervisor brings the fact to the attention of the business education department heads at one of their regular meetings. If approved, the course is brought to the attention of a committee of principals known as the Business Education Principals' Committee. If the Principals' Committee favors the expansion of the course in other schools, a motion is passed by the committee, which will be submitted to all high school principals for their approval.

In order to make certain that the teachers are qualified and interested in teaching the new course, a workshop over a period of four or more Saturday sessions is proposed and, if approved by a special workshop committee and top level administration, the course is ready to go. In the workshop, experts are brought in; and after their presentations, a study guide is developed by the workshop members for use of the teachers in the course.

Before any new audio-visual aid may be used in a business classroom, it must be previewed by a committee which either recommends the purchase or rejection of the item. If the item is approved for purchase, the general warehouse must secure the item for use in individual schools through requisition.

The steps to be taken as described in the preceding paragraph involve much salesmanship and communication with all the administrative staff and other school personnel involved with approval, budget, and procurement of the item.

WHAT IS SUPERVISION?

Supervision is primarily a selling activity. The supervisor must sell each principal on the fact that he is getting the teacher most capable to fill the job, and each teacher that he is getting the best job and that his services are most important to that job.

He must convince the purchasing agent that specified machines, equipment, and supplies should be purchased even if "low bid" is the general policy of the Board of Education. He must sell the building committee on improved space needs for business classrooms, offices, and departmental needs.

He must sell the teachers on the necessity for being in a school position for a reasonable period of time, especially during the probationary first two years. Turnover which approximates 10 percent means increased work for everyone involved in any way with the position being filled.

WHAT ARE THE CHARACTERISTICS OF A SUPERVISOR?

The supervisor must be an individual who is enthusiastic, dedicated, fair-minded, open-minded, and interested in developing an outstanding department.

1. The supervisor must be a scholar, constantly seeking information to understand and keep abreast of his special field, the students, the teachers, the parents, and the community in which he works.

2. The supervisor must be a leader—sensitive to the needs and feelings of those with whom he works, yet accepting the obligation of giving direction.

3. The supervisor must have respect for the dignity and personality of every person with whom he works.

4. The supervisor must be an individual whose standard of work for himself is high and who expects a high quality of work from his teachers.

5. The supervisor should be impatient with unsatisfactory work but most patient in his associations with individuals to improve their work.

6. The supervisor should strive to be an expert on his program, trends in his field, equipment, building plans, personnel, specifications, business organizations in his community, and all other parts of his job.

7. The supervisor should give fair consideration to the solution of problems by the teacher and have a cooperating, coordinating kind of attitude in solving problems rather than a one-sided dictation of a single solution or answer.

8. The supervisor should have broad understanding of individual differences. He should have the judgment to know when to encourage a project and when to step in and prevent a situation from arising.

9. The supervisor must be an executive. He should support his teachers and defend them whenever necessary, so long as they have used good judgment.

10. The supervisor should be a model of orderliness in all parts of his work and, in turn, should expect orderliness on the part of his teachers. Confusion and disorder should not be condoned in a business classroom—neatness and cleanliness in the classroom should be expected if a good business climate is to be fostered and proper habits developed by the students.

11. The supervisor should always be courteous, maintain self-respect, and above all, respect for others.

12. The supervisor must be a respected worker in the community, civic minded, interested in the general welfare of the community, and an individual who is constantly on the lookout for improving relations with the many "publics" with which he works.

13. The supervisor should encourage professional growth on the part of his co-workers. The supervisor should work with community organizations, clubs, and business and lay groups.

14. The supervisor should assist the teacher by making positive evaluations; permitting free discussion of problems; giving helpful orientation; arranging for visitation of good teaching and demonstration lessons; and by improvement of housing, supplies, equipment, teaching materials, and standards.

15. The supervisor should encourage the teacher to—
    a. Plan each day's lesson carefully
    b. Do a bit extra by providing supplementary materials that will aid in the learning process

c. Provide for both the bright and the slow learner—multiple materials, multiple standards
d. Encourage experimentation at the classroom level
e. Be enthusiastic about teaching, be interested in each individual, be where he should be when he is expected, be punctual with his reports, be alert, be friendly, be alive, be up and around, and above all be *professional,* be excited at the success of his students, be preparing for the next step or *be happy with his particular* assignment.

DUTIES OF A SUPERVISOR

Supervisors in their respective fields, usually with the aid of committees or workshops of administrators and teachers, carry on, among others, the following activities:

1. Studies of changing curricular needs. Curriculum offerings vary from school to school in a large school system. Their difference depends upon the size of the building, number of students, available space and equipment, teaching personnel, interest, aptitude, and abilities of students, and a variety of factors largely dependent upon the philosophy, background, and experience of the administrators. The problem is to maintain a proper balance.

2. Preparation of curriculum guides and other instructional aids for the various subjects and grade levels.

3. Review and recommendation of textbooks, supplementary books, films, filmstrips, recordings, and other aids to learning.

4. Assistance to administrators and teachers in the improvement of instruction through professional meetings, classroom visits, conferences, and demonstration lessons.

5. Assistance to the personnel department in the recruiting, selecting, assigning, and evaluating of teachers.

6. Cooperation with the business department and school housing division in determining specifications for classrooms, shops, laboratories, instructional equipment, and supplies.

7. Continuous study of the field through reading, observing, and participating in professional organizations to keep abreast of developments anywhere that might contribute to improved instruction.

8. Continuous evaluation of the results of instruction in student growth, as a basis for improvements in teaching procedure and content.

9. Maintenance of association with community organizations and agencies related to the instructional field.

10. Formulation and approval of the policies for a department of instruction in order to maintain and to improve instructional programs.

11. Establishment and maintenance of standards for equipment and supplies to meet instructional needs most effectively.

12. Direct the preparation of departmental budgets for supplies and equipment to further the instructional program.

13. Conduct meetings of teachers, department heads, and other key personnel to maintain and improve programs, projects, and operations.

14. Cooperate with school architects, engineers, and maintenance personnel in planning for and improving facilities.

15. See that standards of safety and fire regulations are maintained to apply to individual departments.

16. Provide for opportunities such as classes and other types of activities to encourage exceptional students in developing any special talents or abilities.

17. Recommend, promote, and facilitate trips to enrich the instructional program.

18. Encourage the use of democratic processes in the classroom and throughout the school to allow for greater student participation.

19. Direct school contests to the end that they best serve the individual student's growth and welfare.

20. Participate in the development and conduct of guidance and counseling programs to adjust students according to their needs and abilities.

21. Conduct surveys to evaluate the instructional practices and opinions and to assist in the formulation of future plans.

22. Plan research to evaluate teaching methods, use of materials, and other school practices.

23. Weigh the contributions of various contests to determine their value in the promotion of student growth and development.

24. Test theories of instruction through organized studies to determine their practicability in the instructional program.

25. Study programs in other cities to determine trends and emphases in instructional matters.

26. Evaluate all instructional aids to determine their values for instructional purposes.

27. Evaluate the contributions which may be made to community enterprises, select those which seem most worthwhile, and participate in them wholeheartedly to improve public relations.

28. Interpret, wherever possible, instructional programs and policies to lay groups in order to promote better school-community relationships.

29. Seek out and work with leaders in community activities related directly or indirectly to school activities to the end that school and community may work together more closely.

30. Utilize, wherever possible, the help of lay groups in planning and carrying out curricula and school projects, in order that school programs may better reflect community needs.

31. Assist in entertaining visitors to acquaint them with the local schools.

32. Make annual progress reports to acquaint the administration with the activities of the department.

33. Correlate all departmental activities so that they will best serve the instructional program in the individual schools.

34. Develop policies of instruction in terms of accepted theories and practices by means of tests, questionnaires, observations, conferences, and study of research findings to insure that the instructional program is based upon sound concepts.

35. Interpret general administrative policies to co-workers to obtain uniform understanding.

36. Develop and distribute material on current trends in instructional procedures to insure opportunities for continued teacher growth.

37. Guide and advise teachers in their selection of advanced college or university courses, projects, and programs, to aid them in their professional improvement.

38. Counsel and advise parents and parent groups to aid them in the guidance of their children.

39. Participate in the activities connected with the orientation of new teachers. The general tone of orientation activities such as informal teas, interviews, and classroom visitations should be one of warmth and friendliness, balanced by a professional attitude.

The key word in the improvement of instruction is *cooperation*. Principals, assistant principals, department heads in secondary schools, teachers, supervisors, and parents—all have their role to play. Within the individual school, the principal, assistant principal, or department head works with the teachers in an effort to raise the instructional level in that school. In the school system, the business supervisor works with principals, department heads, and teachers to improve instruction in his field. Instruction can be improved and is being improved by the cooperative efforts of all the persons involved. *Remember, the teacher is the key person in the pursuit of excellence in the instructional program.* However, it is the supervisor, in his emerging role as statesman who must provide stimulation and controlled leadership for continuous improvement.

In the final analysis, the supervisor must be able to anticipate future trends as well as present-day requirements. The supervisor cannot afford to become so involved with the details of any one problem or technique that might prevent him from developing his total program. He must be able to select and handle matters of first importance in order to keep the program functioning at a high level and to solve the numerous problems that appear from day to day. Finally, he should strive for cooperation of all of the individuals with whom he works. *Every supervisory problem and every technique used in the improvement of instruction has administrative implications.*

CHAPTER 12

Responsibilities of a City Supervisor

Enos C. Perry

The term "big city" is relative. A city of 100,000 is big when compared to a city of 10,000 but it is small when compared to some of our megalopolises. There seems to be little relationship between the size of the city and the number of supervisors employed. Indeed, some large cities do not have supervisors. The largest cities, however, have well-staffed supervisory departments usually consisting of a director and several assistants who are known as supervisors or consultants.

In discussing the responsibilities of the big city supervisor, it is well to keep in mind that his duties are similar to those of a department head in a large school. The supervisor's responsibilities are intensified, however, because of the size of operation and diversity of schools served.

Large cities are composed of large communities. Each community is served by one or more high schools. These schools are designed—or should be designed—to serve the needs of the people in the communities where they are located. The median I.Q.'s of pupils from school to school may vary as much as 35 points, and the reading levels by as much as four grades. Not only do schools vary in the matter of educational and mental attainment, but they also vary in administrative procedures, guidance practices, social patterns, and economic aspirations. All of these variables have a bearing upon supervision.

The purpose of supervision is to quicken and expand learning directly and indirectly by improving teaching, improving the curriculum, improving the physical facilities, and selling the complete program to pupils, teachers, administrators, and the general public so that this program can function as an important segment of education. Within the framework of these responsibilities resides a myriad of supervisory and administrative activities in which the big-city supervisor must engage if his program is to be successful.

IMPROVING TEACHING

If all teachers were perfectly prepared, there would be little or no need for supervision. Perfectly prepared teachers would have command of the entire field of business, know how to teach all classes of students, and have pleasant personalities, inquisitive minds, and "drive." Unfortunately, all teachers are not so advantageously equipped.

The big city supervisor must plan and do much to improve teaching, including improving the teacher. In the largest cities, where teachers are usually selected by examiners, the supervisor may have nothing whatever to do with the selection of new teachers. In other large cities the supervisor interviews all new teachers before they are given contracts. Sometimes the supervisor administers the qualifying examinations; in other instances he prepares the examinations or sits on the oral boards. Wherever the operations are small enough, it is definitely advantageous for the supervisor to have some part in the selection of the personnel of his department. He should be the best judge of a teacher's educational and experiential background. Taking part in the initial selection of new teachers, then, is one of the responsibilities of many big-city supervisors.

It is imperative that new teachers receive help and guidance from the supervisor. Rapport must be established from the very beginning if the supervisory relationship is to be truly effective through the years. A spirit of genuine friendliness and helpfulness must be established early. If possible, the new teacher should visit the supervisor before beginning his teaching for the purpose of becoming acquainted with and learning about the school and system in which he will be teaching. Sometimes this initial consultation must be delayed until after the school is in session, at which time the supervisor will probably visit the teacher on the job. It is well for the supervisor to have a folder of materials prepared which will be explained and given to the new teacher. Among other things, information about such items as salary, pension, textbook adoptions, requisitions, teachers' organizations, public relations, departmental meetings, lesson plans, and courses of study may be included. A new teacher needs help to become adjusted to his work, and it is up to the supervisor to see that the adjustment is made quickly and pleasantly.

No supervisor is totally successful until every teacher within his department feels comfortable in his presence and free to seek his services. Consultations must occur with regularity and should be sought by the teacher as well as by the supervisor. Consultations, naturally, will vary in nature. They may be about anything from unsatisfactory performance to promotion; from convention participation to serving on a curriculum committee.

Showing teachers how to teach ought to be a responsibility of the supervisor. In large systems with only one supervisor this function tends to fade since there just isn't time to do demonstration teaching for individual teachers. Demonstration teaching before groups of teachers is difficult because there is rarely a normal situation in which the demonstration can be given. Often textbook writers and experts from manufacturing companies spend considerable time in demonstrating what they consider to be the best teaching techniques. These demonstrations are almost always helpful if for no other reason than that they provide a change of pace.

The supervisor can be helpful and improve teaching by holding departmental meetings. Here changes in curriculum, new report forms, employment practices, standards, recent equipment purchases, conventions, and a host of other things can be discussed and teachers brought up to date. Perhaps, what is even more important, such meetings provide a sounding board for teachers to express themselves. Teachers must be given an opportunity to tell what they are doing and what they think is wrong with their educational situation.

In large city systems there are many opportunities for teachers to advance in rank or pay. Teachers may become department heads or consultants; they may earn more money by teaching on an extended day or in evening or summer schools. Supervisors often are consulted before such appointments are made. In a few cities the supervisors have the responsibility of making the selection. Perhaps the guiding of teachers to aspire to and achieve these promotions is a more important responsibility of the supervisor than the part he plays in the selection process.

Supervisors can improve teaching by aiding teachers in transferring to more desirable schools, or to more desirable subject areas. They can often improve teaching by adjusting personality problems and promoting good will by whatever means seem appropriate. Complimentary remarks are always in order.

In-service classes constitute one of the most popular devices for improving teaching. In such classes large segments of the teaching force can be reached and the specific objective of the department emphasized. In-service classes usually carry salary promotional credit. Sometimes they are taught by the supervisor, and if not taught by him, they are usually organized by him. They are organized to meet a specific need. Such courses as those in personality development, methods of teaching specific subject matter, public relations, economic education, data processing, modern business problems, and work experience programs for teachers are samples of the nature of in-service programs. They take the form of seminars, workshops, lecture courses, and practicums. These courses not only give information and techniques, but also provide opportunity for teachers to become acquainted with each other and develop a spirit of unity.

Teaching is always improved if the results are measured. A city-wide testing program gives the quickest stimulus to effective teaching of any single activity. When teachers know that the students are to be tested, they work more diligently and plan their teaching activities more carefully. The testing also provides information from which standards may be established.

Teaching is improved through experimentation and research. It is the supervisor's responsibility to encourage his teachers to participate in scientific study and see that their studies are reported. Teachers are motivated by seeing their names in print, by being mentioned at meetings, and by having their research studies printed. It is important, therefore, for all experiments and research to be brought to the attention of administrators and fellow teachers by the supervisor.

To improve teaching, it is necessary for the teacher to have objectives and standards. New teachers should outline their daily and weekly work in some detail. Strangely, many schools of education have not taught teachers to make this basic preparation for meeting their classes. The supervisor often must teach new teachers how to prepare lesson plans. In every instance, he should check to see that the plans exist.

Supervisors have access to many kinds of valuable materials of which teachers often are totally unaware. Good supervisors collect and distribute these materials. Often the supervisor can arrange to have the materials sent directly to the teachers on a mass basis. Of course, all teaching aids developed by the curriculum department or the bureau of business education automatically would be sent to teachers.

Big city systems usually have enough business teachers in the various categories for the teachers to hold separate sectional meetings. For instance, the bookkeeping teachers would meet as a separate section; the shorthand teachers would meet as a separate section. The initial organization of these groups is the responsibility of the supervisor. Such group meetings can improve teaching and the general professionalism of the teachers.

The supervisor will have need of many committees of teachers—advisory, visual aids, convention, curriculum, and others. Every committee member contributes and learns. The members become better teachers. Working effectively through teacher committees develops *esprit de corps* and results in better teaching.

It is the responsibility of the supervisor in promoting better teaching to bring to the attention of teachers new professional books, special magazine articles, visual and auditory devices, conferences, conventions, and appropriate radio and television programs. This can usually be done by means of a departmental bulletin or letter.

IMPROVING THE CURRICULUM

It is obvious that teaching will be improved if the curriculum itself is improved. The supervisor of business education must keep abreast of the direction in which business is going. He must be acquainted with what the employment needs of business are and will be. This information should be translated into the business education curriculum and reflect itself in suitable changes within the content field as well as in the skills taught and the machines purchased.

In large cities the business education supervisor is always responsible in some degree for the improvement of the program of studies, but the degree varies. If there is a separate curriculum department, his responsibilities will be less than if each educational department must produce its own study guides and courses of study. Even where there is a separate functioning curriculum department, the supervisor in most instances is asked to select the consultants, participate in committee meetings, and often do a good share of the writing. In any event, he is usually the principal consultant in any curriculum revision involving his area of work.

Since supervisors are responsible for having an adequate program of studies, it is up to them to insist that the total educational offerings contain enough in the way of business education to meet the demands of the students and to provide enough trained workers for the local community. Too often supervisors accept the status quo. This is a mistake because general administrators often do not know what should be included within business education. They rely upon their staff for suggestions and will respond positively if the facts and suggestions are presented in a straightforward manner.

Where the city's staff is too small to produce courses of study and curriculum guides, the State Department of Education often assumes the responsibility. Nevertheless, the supervisor is not relieved of making guides available to teachers. It is imperative that he maintain a library of courses of study and curriculum guides from all parts of the country. These are used extensively by him in formulating his own plans as to what should be offered, and he can make them available to his teachers on a loan basis.

The production of special teaching units constitutes a function of the supervisor. Different sections of large cities vary considerably in the quality and needs of its citizens. The same educational diet is not appropriate for all people, and the same may be said of education. For students of low mentality or low reading ability, something different in the way of business education must be offered. This decision often involves the writing of complete guides or the production of special units. At the very least, it involves the selection of appropriate textbooks, workbooks, and supplementary materials.

Too often programs of instruction are watered down for those who do not learn well. This is not good. If the objective is to produce vocational workers, it is imperative that acceptable skills be developed by the pupils. Supervisors should be thinking in terms of new skills that can be mastered by slow learners rather than in terms of producing semi-skilled workers who are bound to be marginal workers at the best.

Because business is changing so rapidly and because education itself is undergoing one of its periodic gyrations, the supervisor must be alert to the pressures of education in general and to the needs of the business community. His program will have to reflect the thinking of the people who run education. His program must reflect the practical thinking of those who will provide the jobs. He must determine, therefore, when to introduce new courses and when to drop old ones. He must know what new courses to recommend to his superior officer and be prepared to organize them.

Once again it is well to stress the importance of constant evaluation in any program of curriculum improvement. Opinions of teachers should be regularly sought through questionnaires. Testing yields an invaluable source of information. Businessmen are helpful in evaluating the product in which the supervisor is interested. Without evaluation, curriculum improvement becomes merely an expression. The supervisor must, therefore, evaluate if he is to be effective.

IMPROVING PHYSICAL FACILITIES

In large cities thousands of new schools are being built. Old schools are being remodeled. Billions of dollars have been spent in large cities in recent years on school buildings. The business education program gets its share of new facilities. The supervisor should assume some responsibility in the planning of the new business education facilities.

For a new building the supervisor must recommend the size of the various rooms. He must know how many students the room is to accommodate and recommend appropriate furniture. He must be aware of needed storage space, display areas, filing facilities; he must know where to place the peg boards, chalkboards, movie screens, flannel boards, and electric outlets. He must have ideas on built-in cabinets, lavatories, lighting, soundproofing, and flooring. In brief, he ought to know what modern business education rooms should be in order to pass the information on to the architect.

To improve physical facilities, the supervisor must be aware of deficiencies in old buildings and make appropriate recommendations based upon sound reasons. Principals appreciate help of this kind. Renovation of business education rooms requires close cooperation on the part of the supervisor since he usually knows more than anyone else about what the modern business classroom should be.

Selecting furniture for business is partly the responsibility of the supervisor. In large cities thousands of dollars are spent on new furniture each year for the business classrooms. Furniture usually lasts about thirty years. Therefore, normally, one-thirtieth of all rooms will get new furniture each year. In recent years, with new schools being built at a rapid rate, the amount of furniture purchased has increased rapidly. The supervisor must know what kind of furniture is best suited for each class situation; he must know something about the construction of furniture. He must decide whether to buy movable or fixed furniture and whether to buy adjustable desks and chairs. He must know how many students each room is to accommodate and then make certain that desks purchased are of the right length and width to fit into the rooms. Not only must all the students be provided desks, but educational requirements and fire regulations must be met when the installation is completed. The selection of furniture never becomes routine because rooms vary in size, money available is not always the same, manufacturers introduce new items, and new kinds of rooms are constantly coming into use.

Physical facilities extend to equipment. It is the responsibility of the supervisor to see that all business education rooms are adequately equipped. There should be enough of the right kinds of equipment. In this connection the supervisor almost always recommends what is to be purchased. He must, therefore, know what is on the market, how extensively it is used, and whether it is suitable for educational purposes.

In a large city the purchasing is usually done by a central purchasing bureau. The purchasing bureau relies upon the advice of the supervisor when purchases of office equipment are made. Many city school systems buy many hundreds of machines each year. Several larger school systems buy more than 1000 typewriters each year, to say nothing of calculators, mimeographs, and bookkeeping machines, for example. The responsibility of the supervisor in making wise recommendations is indeed an important one.

It is not only a responsibility of the supervisor to recommend what to buy but also to determine the quantity. Should typewriters be retired after four years, six years, eight years? When should rotary calculators be retired? Key-driven calculators? When should certain kinds of machines be abandoned?

The supervisors must determine when new kinds of machines are to be introduced. How about electric typewriters? In what quantities: the key-punch? verifiers? sorters? Can the Board of Education afford these new machines? Will the demand justify the cost?

In thinking of the responsibilities of the big-city supervisor about equipment, it will be helpful to point out that any one of the largest four or five cities will spend more on business machines in a year than many cities of 10,000 people do for their entire secondary school program. Indeed, large school systems may buy as many typewriters in a year as some of the smaller states buy for all purposes—business and school combined.

The phyical facilities must be kept in operating order. It is the supervisor's responsibility to see that this is done. If there is a central office machines repair department, the supervisor will be closely associated with its operation. If machines are kept operable through contract, the supervisor will be responsible for seeing that the contracts are adequate and that money is provided for them. The supervisor will often determine the administrative procedures for getting all machines repaired.

In order to get the best equipment, it is often necessary for supervisors to appoint committees to study and evaluate the machines which are on the market. These committees are composed of teachers and clerks. Their advice can be most helpful.

The establishment of an office machines pool is a responsibility of the supervisor. Without a pool of machines a big city system cannot function efficiently. New classes are constantly being organized; machines wear out, are broken, or are stolen. More typewriters are irreparably broken or stolen in some large cities in a single year than many small cities buy in ten. Good administration, therefore, demands that the supervisor provide an adequate supply of machines for the pool and see that these machines are made available as they are required.

The removal of old equipment and redistribution of unneeded equipment are important functions of the big city administrator. Key-driven calculators cost about $350 each. If a school decides to eliminate the key-driven course, ten or twelve thousand dollars' worth of equipment becomes available for use elsewhere. In a city of 1,000,000 people, the redistribution of valuable machines is likely to assume rather large proportions. In any event, efficiency dictates the removal and sale of the old, and redistribution of the usable when not needed at a particular location.

The supervisor must determine the bases upon which machines are to be replaced. Should replacement be on the basis of age, usage, or physical condition? The decision often has to be made by the supervisor.

SELLING THE PROGRAM

New ideas always have to be sold. Sometimes the selling is easy; sometimes the selling is impossible. In times when academic education is being embraced by almost everyone, selling a vocational program is not easy. When the academic cycle runs its course, vocational education will be sought by more people and advocated by the most enthusiastic academician. Even when the going is easiest, programs must be sold if they are to be successful. How are they sold?

The key to growth and success is the principal of the school. Unless he schedules the classes, they cannot be offered. The effective supervisor will work closely with principals. They must be kept informed. They must be helped when they ask for help. Their authority must be recognized. If a supervisor keeps these tenets in mind, he will prosper because principals will recognize him as an ally and not as an obstacle.

Teachers must be kept informed, too, by bulletin, bureau letter, large group meetings, departmental meetings, sectional meetings, and individual association. Teachers must be made to feel and know that they are part of the team. This can be done only when there is complete dissemination of information about the administration to all business teachers. There are no secrets; there is no special treatment.

Parents are kept informed through PTA meetings, radio and television programs, and good newspaper publicity. It is the responsibility of the supervisor to attend public meetings and to participate in any and all programs that will help the parents and general public to understand the value of business education. Sometimes this part of a supervisor's work becomes almost a job in itself. If the supervisor speaks well, if he is friendly, his services will be in demand all too often.

Students must be sold, too. The selling cannot be done directly by the supervisor except at such assemblies as the principal may authorize, or through the promotion of such club activities as sponsored by FBLA and DECA. The business teachers can do much to popularize their offerings, but their efforts can only be catalyzed by the supervisor's working relationship with the line officers. It is the supervisor's responsibility to see that beginning high school students are informed of the program of business education. This can be done only by maintaining good working relationships with the guidance counselors and principals. Keeping the business education program constantly before students is an unending task which must be promoted by the supervisor every step of the way by producing guidance brochures, disseminating special pamphlets, organizing all-boy classes, using the school newspaper to publicize business education, holding assemblies, promoting Business-Education Day, awarding certificates, pins, putting students on radio and television programs, getting scholarships, promoting employer-student luncheons, and doing anything else that might cause students to think twice about the merits of an education for business. Otherwise, information will be spotty. The program will vary with the enthusiasm and know-how of the business teachers of each school.

Finally, the supervisor must maintain close relationship with the public—and the business public in particular. It is the business segment of the public that is most interested in business education. Membership in the National Office Management Association, Chamber of Commerce, Sales Executives Club, and other business organizations is imperative. Also, the supervisor should be reasonably active in these organizations. They will be helpful in securing employment for students and in supporting the program of business education.

Advisory groups consisting of businessmen and women are important in promoting acceptance of the business program. The supervisor should avail himself of the wealth of ideas that an advisory council has. Separate advisory groups for office and distributive occupations are sometimes advisable.

OTHER PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES

The big city supervisor should be a leader. He manifests his leadership in the ways already mentioned. But he should do more. Since he works in an educational laboratory that is unique, he should make contributions accordingly. For instance, he should personally direct meaningful research.

He has a better opportunity to promote research studies because of the magnitude of his work, his close association with administrators and teachers, and the variety of educational situations to be found in a metropolitan setting.

He must show his leadership by writing—writing books, articles, courses of study. He must be active in professional organizations and accept offices or committee assignments in them.

The big city supervisor must make surveys of the entire program of business education. He must determine the quality and suitability of evening school and summer school programs through observation and questionnaires. He must keep abreast of the latest development in business procedures, new employment opportunities, problems of business, government regulations for business, and labor legislation. He must know as much as he can about what the businessman knows. The city supervisor must keep statistics. He must know which teachers are fully certified and which are not; he must know of substitute teachers who are available on short notice; he must have records on enrollments in different subject areas; he must know how many machines of different kinds are in use and where they are used. He must know the relative standing of every school as to enrollment and accomplishment, and he must know why these differences exist.

He must prepare budgets and serve on advisory committees; be concerned with the dropouts, adult education, the Manpower program, and economic literacy; screen requisitions, pacify irate teachers, and entertain foreign dignitaries. He must check requisitions, summarize requests for equipment and test materials. He must be prepared to furnish any kind of information in his field of operation on a moment's notice when requested by his superior officer. In addition, he must know how to teach, how to administer, how to please a thousand different people.

His job is most interesting.

CHAPTER 13

The Characteristics of a Good City Supervisor of Business Education

Verner Dotson

The good supervisor is characterized by his achievement—what he does and how he does it. How well he does his job is dependent upon how good the supervisor's relations are with the people with whom he works. This is especially true of teachers, department heads, principals, other supervisors, and top administrators. To insure good working relations, he should have in writing a clear description of his job, the extent of his authority, and the names of those to whom he is accountable.

The city director or supervisor of business education is a staff person with functional authority. His authority is limited, but he must have the authority necessary for him to function—to do the work assigned to him.

How he works with a school principal could well illustrate kinds of authority and areas of joint responsibility. Both the principal and the departmental director are concerned with the kind and the quality of instruction. Because the principal and the departmental director share responsibility for planning and implementing curriculum in a subject area, the duties and limitations of authority of the principal and the director must be clearly understood by each to avoid misunderstanding in working procedures and to assure full development of the instructional program.

Each departmental director has the duty and authority to develop a systemwide program for his department. He has the functional authority, and must work cooperatively with the principal to carry out the instructional program, as it has been determined, in each individual school.

The department director works frequently and regularly with the department head, who is the principal's representative and is accountable to the principal.

As an example of the limits of authority and the responsibility for actions of the principal and the director, consider the discipline of students. The principal has the authority for disciplining a student. Whatever action is taken must be the decision of the principal, and he does whatever is required by working directly with the student or parents. Yet, the director also has an important place for the solution of the problem of discipline. If the instructional materials are suited to the needs of the students and if the teacher has had adequate training in methods of teaching and teaches with confidence and enthusiasm, most students never become discipline problems. The director has leadership responsibility for the selection or development of the instructional materials and the in-service training of teachers. Teacher morale is a joint responsibility of the principal and the director.

There are two kinds of authority, one formally delegated and the other informally earned by the supervisor because of his recognition as a fully qualified specialist and his acceptance as the kind of a leader the business teachers want. "The degree of leadership provided by the supervisor is determined directly by his success in achieving an earned informal acceptance."[1]

"Effective supervision provides the resources, consultation, leadership, and cooperative service designed to improve instruction in all phases of the business education program."[2]

The business education supervisor follows basic principles of good supervision:

1. He recognizes that he is dealing with emotions, and how people feel is of first importance.

2. He knows that high morale, the emotional and mental reaction of the teacher to his job, is the most important factor in the development of the best possible learning situation.

3. He works with the business teachers to establish common purpose. Together, they agree on purposes, on methods, and on standards of achievement.

4. He is instrumental in getting the business teachers to work together. They exchange ideas and materials gladly. They watch each other teach. They work, learn, and grow in effectiveness together.

5. He makes the best use of his authority as supervisor—he shares it. His teachers accept responsibility because they have a part in making decisions. He knows authority and responsibility are inseparable.

6. He knows that improvement in learning is dependent upon the leadership and the creativeness of the individual teacher; consequently, the business teachers are encouraged to experiment, try one method in one class and another method in another class, and carefully compare the results.

7. He is well aware that morale and enthusiasm can be high—everybody happy—but the achievement of students low, graduates even failing to meet the standards of employability.

8. He carries out an evaluation program so that he knows how effective the teaching is. He does not guess, as evaluation is based on objective and reliable data.

9. He knows that good supervision cannot be haphazard. The program for improvement is carefully planned and is carried on continuously.

STANDARDS

The process of establishing standards of achievement in business education can be the means of creating the ideal situation for the improvement of instruction. If the supervisor is to render effective service in helping teachers do a better job, it is necessary that he find a way for them to work together as a group. They must share their experiences and they must think and plan together, if they are to achieve the greatest progress. The supervisor becomes a member of the group and works on the same basis as the other members rather than as the leader who knows all the answers. It is his task to get others to develop leadership. His purpose in bringing the group together is to create an environment that is conducive to maximum teacher growth.

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[1] Warmke, Roman F. "A Concept of Supervision." *The National Business Education Quarterly* 30: 32; May 1962.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 35.

Uniform city-wide standards set up by the teachers become the means whereby a teacher may evaluate his instructional techniques. If his students usually equal or exceed the standards set, he knows by comparison that he is doing good work. If, though, he finds that his students regularly fail to meet the standards, he should be willing to try to discover what is wrong, because he had a part in establishing the standards. He agreed to them. If friendship, faith, and confidence have been built between the teacher and the supervisor during the meetings when the standards were developed, he can turn to the supervisor for help without doubt or hesitation. Perhaps one of the most difficult problems that faces the supervisor is finding a way to get some teachers to realize they are doing poor work and be willing to utilize the available resources for their improvement. The use of standards may help to simplify and, in some cases, solve this problem.

Standards of achievement set up by the teachers who are teaching the courses must be practical and realistic; they must be attainable by their students; they must provide opportunity for achievement for the low ability student and challenge to the academically talented; they cannot be successfully imposed upon the teacher against his will; they must prepare the graduate to meet employment requirements. One important reason for uniform city-wide standards is the improvement of instruction, but no improvement will take place unless it is initiated in the classroom and carried out by the teacher. He is the key person in any training, guidance, or placement program. It makes little difference what equipment, textbooks, courses of study are provided or what methods of teaching, objectives, or standards the supervisor advocates if the teacher does not use them willingly and effectively. It is the teachers who determine the qualifications the beginning office worker will possess. Consequently, if these conclusions are true (and no one acquainted with teaching could doubt them), the process of establishing standards must be done by teachers; their recommendations about the qualifications of a graduate for a business position are most valuable.

A Statement of Proficiency Card should be issued to each student who earns a high school diploma and who satisfactorily completes one of the four business courses. This is the teachers' recommendation for a business position, and it will be gladly accepted as a most reliable guide to the qualifications of the applicant.

GENERALIST AND SPECIALIST

The supervisor of business education is primarily concerned with the total educational program for his school system. He has a sincere interest in helping every department provide the best possible education for every pupil from kindergarten through post-high school. His interest is far greater than business education. He wants to give each child an opportunity to reach maximum development and to enable each to contribute to society in his own unique way.

The business education supervisor, to be most effective, must be a member of the top-level curriculum policy-making body; he should attend all of their meetings; he should take an active part in all of their deliberations. He must see that business education has recognition and acceptance equal to that of any other department.

The city director or supervisor of business education is also a specialist. Even though he has a background of experience and excellent training in business and business education, there are many things he must do to keep pace with the speedy changes in economics, business, and education:

1. He is a member and an active participant in the work of numerous organizations such as the National Business Education Association, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Machine Accountant's Association, National Education Association, American Vocational Association, National Office Management Association, possibly the National Secretaries Association, their regional, and local affiliates. His enthusiasm for the value of his memberships can be measured by his effectiveness in stimulating his associates to active participation in professional organizations.
2. He reads, at every opportunity, books, magazines, and newspapers, following a carefully developed plan to find new developments in business, economics, business education, and education, to keep in touch with developments in other related subjects.
3. He writes one or more articles each year for publication in his profession. Knowing how much writing contributes to professional growth, he encourages the business teachers with whom he works to write articles describing their research and successful teaching methods.
4. He selects the worthwhile from radio and television in his daily quest for information and knowledge.
5. He enjoys discussing business with anyone he meets, especially with the business teachers in his department. How can he help it? It is his way of life.
6. He studies his field thoroughly, not driven by necessity, but to gratify his thirst for knowledge that is intensified by years of cultivation.

Because he is a specialist in business education, he provides consultation service and leadership in many ways. Here are a few examples:

1. It is his leadership responsibility to develop and interpret courses of study, teaching and resource units, service bulletins, and other curriculum materials through the utilization of standing and *ad hoc* committees of business teachers.
2. He also has the leadership responsibility for the setting up of a well-defined scope and sequence for all subjects in business from junior high school through post-high school.
3. With the help of committees, he makes certain that the best available texts are adopted and that the latest editions are used.

4. He supervises the selection of films, filmstrips, slides, transparencies, charts, kits, and other teaching aids for business education.

5. He has an adequate budget for the addition and replacement of instructional equipment. The replacement schedule is based on cost of maintenance and degree of obsolescence, and it insures uniform consideration of the needs of all schools.

6. The city supervisor has the responsibility to be alert to current trends and needs in room facilities, equipment, and supplies, and to interpret these needs to the administration, school staff, and the public. He presents to the director of building planning the layout and specifications for the business department in new buildings or for the remodeling of existing plants.

SELECTION OF TEACHERS

The employment of excellent teachers is the single most important function of a school system. The success of the business program is dependent upon the quality of the business teachers. The amount of in-service training the supervisors must provide is determined by the quality of the teachers employed. Superior teachers require but little.

The director or supervisor of business education uses his personal associations with the teacher-education institutions and professional organizations—local, state, regional, and national—as a means of making teaching opportunities in his school system known. The friendships he develops, the books and articles he writes, the speeches he makes, and the demonstrations of good teaching methods he gives contribute to the encouragement of good teachers to apply for teaching positions.

After the prospective teacher has applied, the director gets information from every source to determine the qualification of the applicant. He carefully checks to discover the subjects studied and grades received in college, the degree of successful teaching experience, and kind and amount of business experience. After the interviews, he makes his recommendation for employment to the director of personnel.

The supervisor develops a good working relationship with the teacher-education institutions in his area. He helps in the development of the best teaching procedures and in the assignment of student teachers. He gets acquainted with the student teachers and watches them teach so that he may give further assistance to the teacher-education program, and at the same time discover those student teachers with the greatest potential teaching ability in business education.

PUBLIC RELATIONS

The city supervisor of business education is an expert in the field of public relations. Careful plans for a continuous program are made for the entire school year. Little is left to chance. Specific objectives are established. The plan requires active participation of students, business teachers, school administrators, alumni, and businessmen. Research determines what the public thinks and believes. Evaluation committees rate the public relations program's effectiveness.

What the superivisor of business education believes is of major importance. He is certain, he has not the least doubt, that business education is good education. When pursued successfully, business subjects demand persistent and rigorous mental effort. They challenge the superior student to the full extent of his ability. They catch and hold the interest of all students. Those who study business sujects have definite purposes in mind. And business students get what they seek, whether it be the qualifications for a business position or knowledge and skill for their own personal use.

The supervisor is neither willing to permit business subjects to be lost in the academic squeeze nor does he believe it necessary to reduce the time for their study. He is proud of the business curriculum, the teachers, the equipment, the students' achievement, and the graduates' success in business. He wants the public relations program to reach everyone in the community to make the facts known and their implications understood.

CHAPTER 14

The High School Business Curriculum

S. J. Wanous

"An educational program does not start from scratch," writes Harold Spears, San Francisco Superintendent of Schools, "or from the philosophy of a person or a committee." It comes instead from the demands of the people it serves. It changes with the changing demands of the people. "This," adds Dr. Spears, "has been true of the American secondary schools, and there is little reason to believe that such adjustment will not continue in the future."[1] It is for this reason that curricular programs must be under constant study and revision. This is as true of business programs as it is of the others. It is especially true in these days of rapid change. Given in this report are a number of guides for planning curricula to meet the demands of the people for an improved business education in the American secondary schools.

IDEALS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary schools exist and grow in importance because people have faith in them. They support these schools through taxes. Parents send their sons and daughters to them in ever-increasing numbers. As a result, enrollments in secondary schools have mushroomed. In the school term 1959-60, there were 11,252,000 young people enrolled in the upper four years of America's public secondary schools. About 70 per cent of the potential secondary-school population was actually enrolled in a public school.[2] By way of contrast, there were only 110,000 young men and women enrolled in the upper four years in 1890. In that year, fewer than 15 per cent of the young people, ages 14-17, were in school. Because of the current universal acceptance of the schools and their consequent bulging enrollments, curricular programs must be provided that are in harmony with the needs, interests, and abilities of *all* the young men and women who attend them. This ideal must always be at the top of the list of those we set for the secondary schools. It must ever be in the minds of those who plan school programs.

Secondary schools are not considered a luxury, but a necessity. Ideally, then, little should be offered in them that cannot be supported by cold, hard facts. Every program must be justified by the results it achieves. Fuzzy thinking on what *might be* must give way to clear thinking on what *must be*. School programs supported by little more than time-worn cliches must be reexamined and changed, if need be, to those that have real meaning and value to our young people.

AIMS OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

The aims of secondary education have been stated and restated many times since the establishment of the first public secondary school in Boston in 1821.

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[1] Spears, Harold. "Educational Implications of Automation as Seen by a Curriculum Specialist." *Automation and Challenges to Education.* (Edited by Luther H. Evans and George E. Arnstein.) Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1962. p. 51.

[2] U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. *Enrollment, Teachers, and Schoolhousing.* Circular No. 604. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1959. p. 9.

However, Herbert Spencer is said to be the first educator to formulate a set of aims through a study of human needs.[3] This he did in 1860. Earlier aims were generally concerned with scholarship, mental discipline, and preparation for college. Since Spencer's aims emphasizing well-defined practical outcomes first appeared, many attempts have been made to set down in concrete language the job of our secondary schools in relation to the people it serves. Those of Alexander Inglis, published in 1918,[4] and the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, also published in 1918,[5] those published in 1924 by the Committee of the North Central Association,[6] those published in 1938 by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association,[7] those published in 1944 by the Educational Policies Commission and commonly known as the "Imperative Educational Needs of Youth,"[8] those prepared in 1955 by the participants in the White House Conference on Education,[9] and those prepared in 1959 by James B. Conant,[10] are the most notable examples.

Essentially, the foregoing sets of aims focus attention on the needs of youth in general as well as occupational education. The following aims taken from the list of ten known as the "Imperative Educational Needs of Youth"[11] are of special interest to business educators:

> All youth need to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.
>
> All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.
>
> All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others.
>
> All young people need to grow in ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.

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[3] Spencer, Herbert. *Education: Intellectual, Moral, and Physical.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1860. p. 32.

[4] Inglis, Alexander. *Principles of Secondary Education.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1918. p. 368.

[5] United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education.* Bulletin No. 35. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1918. pp. 10-11.

[6] North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. *Report on Standards for Reorganization of Secondary School Curricula, 1924.* Minneapolis: the Association, 1924.

[7] National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938. pp. 47-108.

[8] National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Education for All American Youth.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1944. pp. 225-26.

[9] The Committee for the White House Conference on Education. *A Report to the President.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1956. pp. 8-9.

[10] Conant, James B. *The American High School Today.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959. pp. 41-76.

[11] *Education for All American Youth,* op. cit., pp. 225-26.

AIMS OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

Early in its history, business education was primarily concerned with preparing young people for occupations in business. In order to meet the changing needs of people, however, business education has changed rapidly. It has grown from a few courses to many; from one major purpose, to several; from training that was often geared to specific jobs, to education for families of occupations; from limited enrollments to fifth place among the subject fields when ranked according to the numbers of students enrolled in them. It is significant to observe that of all the students enrolled in the secondary schools of the United States in 1958, 81 percent earned some credit in business courses,[12] making it the most popular field outside the core program. The students enrolled for a number of reasons. As a result, the aims of business education which have been rather widely adopted by secondary schools may be stated as follows:

1. To prepare students for office, sales, and managerial occupations
2. To develop personal-use competencies of benefit to everyone
3. To develop understandings essential to the prudent management of one's financial activities
4. To develop an understanding of our business and economic system.

These aims match rather well the more broadly stated aims of the secondary school, referred to earlier, and reflect the significant part that business education plays in the total secondary school program when curriculum planning is geared to the needs of young people.

Occupational Preparation. Ever since Spencer formulated his aims for secondary education in 1860, secondary schools have addressed themselves to the responsibility of preparing their graduates to enter occupations. While the attainment of this goal should be of great concern to the curriculum planner, there is much evidence on hand to indicate that occupational education programs have not always received the attention they deserve. As a result, Dr. Spears said, "It is easier for our graduates to get into college than it is for them to get into a job."[13]

Only a relatively small percentage of young people graduate from secondary school with adequate occupational preparation. The Prosser Resolution adopted in 1945 at a conference sponsored by the United States Office of Education set the figure at 20 per cent.[14] In none of the schools is this type of preparation required. It may be elected by those who have room for it in their programs, a privilege that is fast disappearing because of crowded general education and academic schedules. As a result, many of our young people leave school with no prospects for employment. Figures show that the percentage of unemployment is heaviest in the 17- to 21-year age group—not a very encouraging picture, and one that secondary schools can take little comfort in viewing.

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[12] Greer, Edith S., and Harbeck, Richard. *What High School Pupils Study.* U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. OE-33025, No. 10. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office.

[13] Spears, Harold, *op. cit.*, p. 57.

[14] Alexander, W. M., and Saylor, J. Galen. *Modern Secondary Education.* New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1959. p. 489.

The task of planning programs to meet the occupational needs of students must be attacked with the same vigor and imagination that goes into other programs. A look at some facts about high school graduates will stress the wisdom of this action.

In this decade, 26,000,000 young people will be looking for work, seven million more than there were in the 1950's. Roughly, one-third of these will drop out of high school before they graduate; one-third will graduate and seek employment; one-third will enter college. Four out of five entering college, however, will drop out before graduating, most of them in the first and second years. Arthur J. Goldberg, former United States Secretary of Labor, warns that America's young people will have to compete more keenly than ever before for jobs because there will be so many looking for work.[15]

The business field provides more opportunities for employment than any other. "Moreover," writes Mr. Goldberg, "the greatest growth in the number of jobs will be in the clerical and sales fields, almost four million more in 1970 than in 1960."[16] The following table, taken from a Seattle survey, offers convincing proof of job opportunities in business.[17] It is fairly representative of the picture in the nation as a whole.

Business Occupations	42%
Craftsmen	13
Operatives	13
Service Workers	12
Professional and Semi-Professional Workers	11
Laborers	6
Protective Service Workers	2
Unclassified	1
	100%

The Seattle report adds that the number of people in business occupations has increased faster than in any other occupational classification during the last 30 years; this trend continues. There are two and one-half times as many office workers today as there were 20 years ago. Furthermore, one-half of all high school graduates will find employment in business—if they are properly prepared. This does not account for all those needing employment, but the number that can be benefited from a properly planned business curriculum is far from unimpressive. The facts speak for themselves.

There is another aspect to this problem that is often overlooked in curriculum planning. Much stress is currently placed on science education by curriculum planners. Scientific discoveries will mean little, however, if we do not prepare the people needed to make, finance, sell, transport, and service the new products science develops. The following formula taken from a national publication stresses the close relationship that exists between office and science education.[18]

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[15] Goldberg, Arthur J. "Keep Them in School." *NEA Journal* 50:9; April 1961.

[16] *Ibid.*

[17] National Office Management Association, Seattle Chapter. *As a Matter of Fact.* Seattle: the Chapter, 1962. p. 2.

$$P = \frac{\mathrm{Sec}_n \times \mathrm{ATS}}{\mathrm{Sci}_n}$$

Translated, the equation reads: Productivity of research equals the number of secretaries, times their average typing speed, divided by the number of scientists. The article continues, "A lab can produce only as fast as its secretary can type. One scientist and four secretaries are better than four scientists and one secretary."

There are a number of principles that should be kept in mind in planning programs for occupational preparation in business. Some of these are discussed briefly in the paragraphs that follow.

Provision for General Education: General education includes those activities that are so important in the lives of our young people that all should receive training in them. Curriculum specialists in business education must take cognizance of this fact. In practice, some general education courses are required; some are placed on the elective list. Business courses that contribute to general education are usually included in the latter group. Provision should be made within subject groups to care for the varying needs of the students, while it is agreed that some training in mathematics should be required of all. For example, the courses offered to meet this requirement should be varied enough to meet the individual needs of the students taking them.

It should be recognized that there is much in general education that contributes to occupational proficiency. The English and mathematics courses, for example, are particularly valuable in preparing graduates for business occupations. Their importance to business should be stressed. It is also true that there is much in business education that contributes to the general education of students. The experiences gained in such subjects as general business, business law, economics, and consumer economics are of such importance and widespread use that they are frequently included in the general education program—at least, on an elective basis. Leading educators have long stressed the need for including these experiences in the required core program, but their recommendations have thus far not received general acceptance.

The number of general education units required for graduation ranges from 10.1 to 14.2; the majority is close to 10. Thus, approximately six units may be elected in subjects outside the required list.[19] Students preparing for business occupations may presumably use these units for this purpose.

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[18] *Newsweek*, January 16, 1961, p. 52.

[19] National Education Association, Research Division. *High School Graduation Requirements.* Research Bulletin 37. Washington, D. C.: the Association, December 1959. pp. 121-27.

Provision for Basic General Business Education. All occupations in business require that persons preparing for them be in command of a broad business vocabulary and understand business practices, standards, regulations affecting business, and the structure and functions of business. Provision should be made for this type of education in the curricula preparing students for business occupations. Such courses as general business, first-year bookkeeping, and business law, are frequently used to meet this need, with bookkeeping holding first place.

Provision for Common Specialized Education. Curriculum specialists warn against training students for specific jobs. There are obvious dangers in this practice. Instead, preparation in the skills and understandings that are basic to a family of occupations should be included and stressed. Studies of office occupations show that a considerable number of activities are common to most, if not all of them. The list includes using the typewriter, telephone, and 10-key adding machine. It also includes filing papers, composing communications, keeping office records, and handling a number of additional related activities. A similar core of common experiences exists in selling occupations. The wisdom of giving top priority in curriculum planning to these common activities is self-evident. The three courses, typewriting, bookkeeping, and office practice, most frequently required in business curricula stressing office occupations appear to be well chosen. They offer specialized education that is basic to a number of office occupations.

In addition, however, consideration should be given to the inclusion of the somewhat more specialized preparation needed for stenographic, bookkeeping, and selling occupations. There is an ever-pressing need for well-prepared graduates in these fields. The employment opportunities that exist in individual communities should determine the extent to which programs in these occupations should be stressed.

Despite the claims made to the contrary by uninformed critics of our secondary schools, the graduates of these schools need specialized education to qualify for employment. The key to employment in today's world is the possession of a skill or a group of well-coordinated skills, plus occupational understanding. Few young people with this type of preparation are or will be unemployed. On the other hand, there is an oversupply of unskilled help.

Even automation will not decrease the number of office workers now employed. More, rather than less, specialized preparation will be required. It is true that electronic machines do reduce the number of workers needed in routine jobs requiring little or no preparation. These machines do not displace persons engaged in occupations in which accounting, stenographic, secretarial, or correspondence responsibilities are handled. In addition, a number of new jobs related to data processing, requiring high specialization, have been created. These, at any rate, are the findings of a study based on 20 private industry offices that have installed electronic computers.[20]

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[20] United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Impact of Automation.* Bulletin No. 1287. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1960. pp. 96-100.

Provision for Integration with Other Subject Fields. As already indicated, some of the general education subjects such as English, mathematics, and social studies, make a substantial contribution to the occupational preparation of students getting ready for business jobs. The training of special occupational value in these subjects should be carefully integrated with related activities in business subjects. Report and letter writing activities, for example, are stressed in a number of subjects. Uniform standards should be used. A number of similar concepts are stressed in mathematics and bookkeeping courses. Again, uniform solutions to problems should be stressed.

A good example of the type of coordination that should be achieved is provided by the social studies, English, and business education departments of the Seattle City Schools. A handbook of uniform report writing standards has been developed by representatives of these departments. It serves as a writing guide for all the students in the system.

Provision for Cooperation with Business. Secondary schools have many demands placed on them. The need for general education grows with new advances in science, urban development, and international trade. Industrial growth places a premium on occupational specialization. Colleges want better-prepared students. It is obvious that our secondary schools cannot fully serve all these needs in the time available to them. As a result, business must lend a hand in preparing graduates for office and sales occupations. Training in specialized vocabularies, machines, and practices must be handled by business. Business must also provide opportunities for on-the-job training in order to stress the practical aspects of occupational education. Such training is especially needed in preparing graduates for selling occupations.

Personal-Use Competencies of Benefit to Everyone. A number of business subjects have such high importance in developing desirable personal-use competencies that they are taken by many students for this purpose, not for their value in preparing them for an occupation. This is especially true of typewriting. On a national scale, high school enrollments in typewriting are about three times higher than those in bookkeeping, which is in second place. As a result, a typewriting course emphasizing personal-use aims is offered on a wide scale in junior and senior high schools. Composing at the machine and the preparation of personal papers are stressed. In addition, however, the recommendation is made that basic skills be emphasized so that the students who later take advanced training for occupational reasons may do so without repeating the beginning course.

Other courses taken for their personal use are general business, bookkeeping, and business law. These courses also provide non-technical background information for pupils preparing for business jobs. General business and business law can meet the needs of the two groups of students without much revision. Bookkeeping, however, needs considerable adjustment in order to serve the personal needs of students. A course for this purpose can be covered in far less time than is normally needed to cover bookkeeping activities in business.

Note-taking is another course of the personal-use type that is currently being offered in order to meet the needs of academic students for help in taking, organizing, and using notes in discussion and lecture-type courses. The course is one semester in length and is offered, as a rule, to nonbusiness students.

Everyone must learn how to manage his own business affairs. The curriculum specialist must see to it that each student has the opportunity somewhere in his school program to acquire the competencies he needs to do this.

Competency in Consumer Economics. Consumer education cuts across the entire high school curriculum. In its broadest sense it emphasizes the making of prudent decisions. Since many of the important decisions that must be made by young people fall in the field of personal finance, that is, using credit, buying insurance, investing, budgeting, and buying and selling practices; in general, it is obvious that business education has a unique mission to perform in this area. The curriculum specialist should see to it that, at the very least, education of this type is made available to all the students on an elective basis in the secondary school. Many educational leaders believe that this course should be included in the core program of all the students. Considering the importance of the activities covered to personal and national welfare, one finds it difficult to disagree with this. A look at national enrollments by subjects reveals the fact, however, that this ideal is far from attaining realization.

Development of Economic Understandings. Civic and educational leaders have for some time stressed the urgency of giving high school students an understanding and appreciation of our economic system. Results of tests given to high school students reveal an appalling lack of understanding of basic economic issues. Checks on enrollments indicate that only five per cent of high school graduates have had any formal preparation in economics. Even more alarming has been the discovery that only a small percentage of our teachers have had any training in this important discipline. Primarily as a result of these conditions, two national studies on economic education have been made. One was sponsored by the Council for Advancement of Secondary Education, established jointly by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Better Business Bureau, Inc. The requisites for economic literacy were derived from suggestions submitted by representatives of various economic groups as well as a study of economic terms used in magazines and newspapers. The findings of the Council appear in two highly informative publications.[21]

The second of the studies, initiated by the National Task Force on Economic Education, was announced jointly by the American Economic Association and the Committee for Economic Development. The published report of the Task Force emphasizes the point that "economic understanding is essential if we are to meet our responsibilities as citizens and as participants in a basically private enterprise economy. Many of the most important issues in government policy are economic in nature, and we face economic problems at every turn in our day-to-day lives."[22] The full report is of such importance to business educators that all of them should become familiar with its contents. It sets forth in detail the minimal understandings needed for effective citizenship. Further, it recommends that economic literacy be promoted in the following ways:

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[21] National Association of Secondary School Principals, Council for Advancement of Secondary Education. *Key Understandings in Economics* and *Economics in the Press.* Washington, D. C.: the Association, a Department of the National Education Association, 1956.

1. Wherever feasible, pupils take a course in economics or its equivalent under some other title, and that in all schools of substantial size there be at least an elective senior course in economics;
2. Economic understandings be developed in a number of related courses, such as history, geography, and business;
3. Business education curricula include a required course in economics; and
4. Economic understandings be emphasized at other appropriate points, beginning in the lower grades.[23]

Business educators have a heavy responsibility for meeting the needs of our young people for economic education. In a recent report, Paul Lomax urged them to accept it. "The area of economics," he wrote, "is the basic social study of business."[24] He adds that an understanding of economic terms and concepts should be developed in all business subjects. He further added that business teachers should give curriculum leadership to the improvement of economic education in the total school program.

There follow a number of curricular programs in business taken from secondary schools in the United States. These programs are offered as samples; they are not necessarily typical. The programs are from schools classified as small, medium, and large and are included with brief comments.

Sample Program from Small Schools. The total enrollment in the small schools ranges from 1 to 299; approximately 33 per cent of all high school students in the United States are enrolled in schools of this size. According to enrollment figures, 53.1 per cent of the public secondary schools fall into the small school category.[25] Of the schools in this category, approximately 43.4 per cent offer a major in business education.[26] The remaining schools offer business courses on an elective basis only. No major sequence in business is so designated.

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[22] Committee for Economic Development. *Economic Education in the Schools.* New York: the Committee (711 Fifth Avenue), 1961). 1961. p. 7.

[23] *Ibid.*, pp. 64-70.

[24] Lomax, Paul S. "Economic Education Is Your Responsibility." *The Journal of Business Education* 38:92; December 1962.

[25] Ford, Edmund A., and Walker, Virgil R. "Public Secondary Schools." *Statistics of Education in the United States, 1958-59.* U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, No. 1. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1961. pp. 7-14.

[26] Perry, R. S., and Wanous, S. J. "The Business Curriculum—What Is Its Future?" *The National Business Education Quarterly* 27:41; May 1959.

The schools in this category that offer a major sequence usually offer only one because of the limited faculty, facilities, and students. The program that follows is from Kodiak High School, Kodiak, Alaska. It is a sample program in schools offering a single business major.

General Graduation Requirements

English (3 years)
General Science
Physical Education and Health
Biology
World History
U. S. History
U. S. Government
General Mathematics

Business Course Requirements

Typewriting (2 years)
  (Office Practice and Office Machines are a part of second-year typing)
Bookkeeping (1 year)
Shorthand (2 years)
Business Mathematics
Business English
Economics
General Business

Nineteen and one-half units are required for graduation. Seven and one-half of the total units required for graduation must be in business courses to constitute a major in the field. It is common for schools of this size to require typewriting, bookkeeping, and shorthand. Commonly, shorthand is offered for only one year. In addition, general business and business mathematics are frequently offered. Kodiak High School provides a wide selection of courses emphasizing training that is basic to many occupations. The school's administrators are to be commended for the emphasis on economic education.

Sample Program from Medium Schools. The schools included in this group have enrollments ranging from 300 to 999. Thirty-five per cent of the schools in the United States fall into the medium school category. These schools enroll approximately 43 per cent of the public secondary school population.[27] Approximately 68 per cent of the schools in this category offer a major or majors in business.[28] The remaining schools offer business courses on an elective basis. Schools of this size often offer two or more major specializations within the business department. The program that follows is from Crosby High School, Belfast, Maine. It is a sample program in those schools offering two majors.

General Graduation Requirements

English (4 years)
Physical Education (2 years)
Mathematics (1 year)
Civics (1 year)
U. S. History (1 year)
Science (1 year)
Health Education (1 year)

Secretarial Major Requirements

General Business
Business Arithmetic
Typewriting (2 years)
Stenography (2 years)
Office Practice
Transcription
Bookkeeping (elective)
Consumer Education (elective)

Business Administration Requirements

General Business
Business Arithmetic
Typewriting (2 years)
Bookkeeping (1 year)
Office Practice (elective)
Consumer Education (elective)

Sixteen units are required for graduation at Crosby High School. Eight of the total units required for graduation must be in business to constitute a major in the field.

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[27] *Ibid.*
[28] *Ibid.*

It is typical of schools offering two majors in business to offer one in the secretarial or stenographic area and the other in the general clerical area. Often the only difference between the two programs is the inclusion or exclusion of shorthand courses. It is common, too, to provide in the general clerical curriculum some training in office machines beyond that received in the office practice course.

Sample Program from Large Schools. This category includes schools with an enrollment of 1000 or more students. Of all the public schools in the United States, 11.6 per cent are classified as large schools. Approximately 24 per cent of all public secondary students are enrolled in these schools.[29] Approximately 80 per cent of these schools offer a major or several of them in business education.[30] The remaining schools offer business subjects on an elective basis. It is not uncommon for schools of this size to offer four or more separate business majors or course sequences. These schools often place graduates in larger firms requiring a greater degree of specialization. The program at Edmunds Senior High School, Burlington, Vermont, that follows is a sample program of schools offering four business majors.

General Graduation Requirements
English (4 years)
Mathematics (1 year)
U. S. History (1 year)
Science (1 year)
Social Studies (1 year)

10th Grade Requirements in Business
Economic Geography
Introductory Typewriting

Secretarial Major Requirements
Transcription Typewriting (2 years)
Stenography (2 years)
Economics
Business Law
Business Correspondence
Office Practice
Accounting (elective)

Accounting Major Requirements
Business Typewriting (2 years)
Economics
Business Law
Business Correspondence
Accounting
Office Practice
Bookkeeping

Merchandising Major Requirements
Business Typewriting (2 years)
Consumer Economics or Economics and Business Law
Salesmanship and Advertising
Merchandising
Accounting (elective)

Clerical Major Requirements
Business Typewriting (2 years)
Clerical Practice (2 years)
Consumer Economics or Economics and Business Law

Elective Business Courses
Business Mathematics
General Business
Bookkeeping
Recordkeeping
Personal Typewriting

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[29] Ford and Walker, *loc. cit.*
[30] Perry and Wanous, *loc. cit.*

Sixteen units are required for graduation at Edmunds Senior High School. Of this total, seven units are the minimum number required for a business major. Students with a wide variety of interests and abilities may be accommodated in the school. All major sequences should develop employability in the graduates.

Sample Combination Academic-Business Program. A number of secondary schools have developed combination programs which enable students to prepare for college entrance, and at the same time acquire basic competencies needed for business employment. The program that follows is offered by the Los Angeles City Schools.

College Preparatory-Business Major Graduation Requirements

(B9-A12) (170 semester units in Senior High School)

English (7 semesters)
Social Studies (6 semesters)
Science (4 semesters)
Foreign Language (4 semesters)
Algebra (2 semesters)
Geometry (2 semesters)
Foreign Language, Mathematics or Science (2 semesters)
Guidance/Driver Education (1 semester)
Fine Arts (1 semester)
Physical Education/Health (8 semesters)

Typewriting (1 semester in Senior High School)
Bookkeeping (2 semesters)
Business Machines (1 semester)
Business Elective (1 semester)

Electives (6 semesters)

College Preparatory-Secretarial Major Graduation Requirements

(B9-A12) (170 semester units in Senior High School)

English (7 semesters)
Social Studies (6 semesters)
Science (4 semesters)
Foreign Language (4 semesters)
Algebra (2 semesters)
Geometry (2 semesters)
Foreign Language, Mathematics, or Science (2 semesters)
Guidance/Driver Education (1 semester)
Fine Arts (1 semester)
Physical Education/Health (8 semesters)

Typewriting (2 semesters)
Shorthand (2 semesters)
Office Practice (1 semester)
Business Elective (1 semester)

Electives (5 semesters)

The combination major is a comparatively new development in our secondary schools. The majority of schools which have thus far instituted this program have been in the medium and large categories. This is a curricular program which will, no doubt, be widely adopted in the future because it meets both the academic and employment needs of the students.

CURRICULAR PROGRAMS

A study conducted in 1958 reveals the fact that of the 289 schools covered, only about 68 per cent offer one or more major sequences in business; 32 per cent do not. The schools of the latter type offer business courses on an elective basis. No meaningful sequence of courses leading to employment preparation is required. In all cases, however, a core of general education subjects is required.[31] The major sequences offered in schools of the first type, with the percentage of schools offering them, are shown in the following tabulation:

Stenographic	84.7%
General Clerical	75.2
Bookkeeping	63.1
Salesmanship	29.3

Stenographic Curriculum. The preparation of students in this sequence must include typewriting, shorthand, transcription, office practice, bookkeeping, and economics. These are minimal requirements. Employment opportunities in this field are high, but so are employment standards. English backgrounds must be strong. The curriculum specialist must provide adequate opportunity to develop the competencies that are needed to enter this occupational field. Remedial courses in English and mathematics should be provided for those who need this training to handle learning activities in shorthand and bookkeeping satisfactorily.

General Clerical Curriculum. This is the most rapidly growing sequence in business. A number of subjects of questioned occupational worth are frequently included in it. It is evident that the general clerical curriculum is often used for the less able students in the school. The sequence should include courses in general business, typewriting, bookkeeping, office practice, and economics. The standards established should be high and meaningful, and the period of training in these courses should be set to meet the needs of the students. This is the sensible answer to the problem of handling slow learners, not the inclusion of thin courses. The curriculum specialist must keep in mind that routine jobs in offices requiring little or no preparation are fast disappearing. Only graduates with a respectable degree of ability in handling office responsibilities can obtain office employment. Courses that do not meet this requirement should be eliminated from the sequence.

Bookkeeping Curriculum. The bookkeeping curriculum is rapidly disappearing from high school programs. This trend is puzzling in face of the fact that there are many opportunities for placement in this occupation. Moreover, curriculum planners should remember that the bookkeeping curriculum provides a strong background for young people who will eventually manage their own businesses or assume management responsibilities. Obviously, there are many young people entering managerial positions without the benefit of a collegiate business education.

A strong background in mathematics is needed for the bookkeeping sequence. Curriculum planners must see to it that this background is provided. In addition, the sequence should include two years of bookkeeping instruction, typewriting, economics, business law, and business organization.

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[31] Perry and Wanous, *loc. cit.*

Selling Curriculum. This curriculum has never been a very popular one in high schools, despite the great number of employment opportunities that are available in the selling field. This may be due to the fact that high school graduates know that they can gain employment in selling without pursuing the selling curriculum. Consideration should be given to combining into one course the important elements of the several selling and retailing courses normally offered in this program. To this course should be added one in on-the-job training in selling. These two courses need not constitute a major curriculum; instead, they should be offered on an elective basis to interested and qualified pupils.

RECOMMENDED IMPROVEMENTS IN THE BUSINESS CURRICULUM

The foregoing discussion suggests the wisdom of taking a number of steps to improve education for business in America's secondary schools. These steps are summarized in the recommendations that follow:

1. Curriculum planners must see to it that many more young people have the opportunity to prepare for business occupations. Millions of them will be seeking employment, and there will be stiff competition for jobs. Business offers the best chance for those seeking work, but specialized as well as general education is needed. Good curriculum planning can provide both types of education.

2. Business needs highly motivated and talented young people. Curriculum planners must make it possible for students of this caliber to pursue the academic curriculum and at the same time prepare for office employment. Such programs as those adopted in Minneapolis, where gifted students take a one-year intensive course in shorthand; in Los Angeles, where the units required for graduation have been increased and where gifted students may carry combination academic-business majors; or in Grossmont, California, where able students may skip intermediate courses in typewriting, should be investigated and adopted wherever feasible.

3. Curriculum planners must place major emphasis on learning activities that are common to a family of occupations. These should be strongly developed. Specialized training applying to a specific job should be handled by business.

4. Curriculum planners should stress the value of learning activities in such general education courses as English and mathematics to young people preparing for business occupations. These subject areas should be held responsible for developing the competencies needed. If courses in business mathematics and business English are offered, they should be offered to students on the basis of demonstrated ability in English and mathematics, not as a substitute for them.

5. Curriculum planners should also recognize the general education value of such courses as general business and business law and open them, on an elective basis, to all students in the school.

6. All business courses should stress the learning activities included in them that are related to the management of one's financial affairs and an understanding of our economic system. In addition, wherever feasible, separate courses in these subjects should be offered to all the students in the schools, preferably on a required basis.

7. All business courses set up for low-level ability students primarily to keep them busy should be eliminated from the curriculum. Suspect courses falling into this category are general business courses emphasizing penmanship and remedial reading, proliferated office machines courses, typewriting courses beyond the fourth semester, and work-experience courses involving errand running for academic credit.

8. The general clerical curriculum, like other programs in business, should have for its chief aim the development of marketable office skills. This curriculum should not be used as a dumping ground for low-ability pupils.

9. The several courses offered in business should be grouped around meaningful sequences. One or more of the following sequences should be offered, depending upon employment opportunities and the size of the school: stenographic, bookkeeping, and general clerical. The practice of allowing students to elect occupational courses, without regard to their placement in a body of well-organized activities should be discontinued.

10. In view of the growing importance of automation in data processing, consideration should be given to including introductory learning activities in this field in such courses as office practice and bookkeeping. These activities should acquaint the students with processes and terms, not with the machinery of automation.

CHAPTER 15

The Principal Administers the Business Department

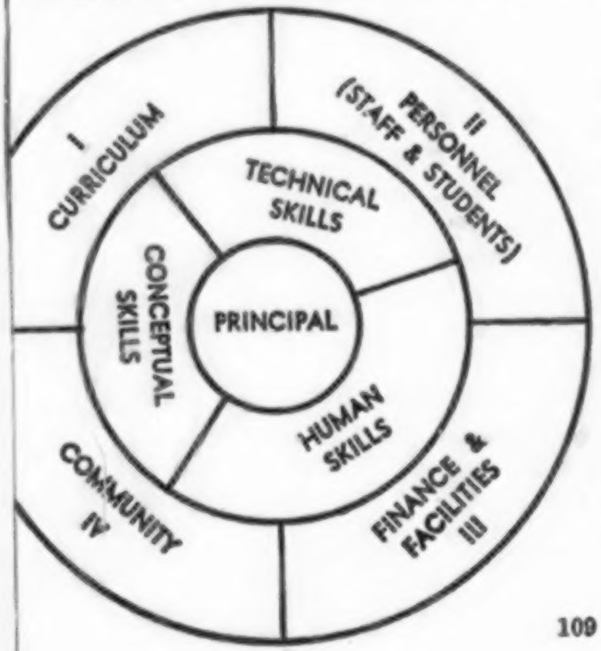
Fred S. Cook and Eleanor Maliche

Today's school principal has tasks of administration and supervision that are dynamic and challenging. Currently, he is enmeshed in a complex of changing administrative philosophy which is affecting his day-to-day duties and responsibilities. His role in regard to the business department becomes increasingly demanding with the advance of modern technology. In view of an emerging science of principalship, this discussion will include both what *is* and what *ought* to be the principal's relationship to a specific department in his school.

ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

Both within a particular school and between schools in the system, the principal has major responsibilities. Theoretically, he is a leader within his school. He is also the liaison officer between the community and the school. He is answerable to the Board of Education through his superior in the superintendent's office, and he must support, and act within the context of, the policies of the Board. Although he may have an autonomous role within the local school, he is somewhat restricted in his actions by the limitations of authority placed upon him, by his philosophy of education, by his personality, by his competency, and by his training.

Functions of the Principalship. In this chapter, the principal's functions have been classified into four major areas. This classification is arbitrary; it should be remembered that there is an overlapping of duties and responsibilities among these functions. These functions and their interrelationships are illustrated in the chart. For the sake of organization of ideas, we will discuss each of the four functions as discrete entities.



The framework of the position of the principal imposes numerous functions upon him. Those functions that are of major concern to us are.

I. Curriculum
II. Personnel (staff and students)
III. Facilities and finance
IV. Community

What the principal does in connection with these major functions will depend chiefly upon his perception of his job and upon his skills in administration.

His personal values will stamp a characteristic style upon his behavior. As he adjusts to a particular job pattern, he will shape the pattern to his image. His particular administrative skills can be categorized tri-dimensionally:[1]

1. *Technical Skills.* The principal must have a working knowledge of certain technical areas, such as budgeting, curriculum design, personnel, and facilities.

2. *Human Skills.* The principal must know how to direct and work cooperatively with persons both within and outside the school. He must demonstrate his knowledge of and skill in human relations in working with the staff, the pupils, the parents, and his many "communities."

3. *Conceptual Skills.* The principal must be able to perceive his school not only in small units (English department, business, records, etc.) but as a totality.

The principal is not an island unto himself. If he were, his leadership position in the modern high school would be an overwhelmingly impossible one. However, not only does he need the assistance of his staff and of the pupils, but also it is up to him to involve them in the functioning. He must delegate responsibilities and authority. For example, many of the responsibilities listed here can and should be delegated to the head of the business department, who, in turn should delegate some duties to the teachers.

Through delegation of duties the principal does not shirk his responsibilities; he provides means for accomplishing them. He is ultimately accountable for the achievement of the educational aims of the entire school.

I. CURRICULUM

The educational program provided in the school must be the principal's primary responsibility. He should be aware of what the total local community wants in its educational program. Not only must needs of pupils and the local community be met as fully as possible, but also the school's curricula must be in line with overall instructional policies established by the superintendent's office and the Board of Education. Limitations imposed by personnel, finance, and facilities must be considered. The principal must provide avenues for (1) the efficient functioning of the existing curricula, (2) continuing evaluation of all courses and programs, (3) revising and adding to educational offering based upon research and new developments in society, and (4) experimenting in curricular patterns and teaching techniques. Let's examine the principal's responsibilities for these four curricular functions in the business department.

Efficient Functioning of the Existing Curricula. The principal must organize and coordinate all resources and personnel of the school into a unified effort focused on its instructional program. Specifically, in the business department the principal shall provide for:

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[1] Katz, Robert L. "Skills of an Effective Administrator," *Harvard Business Review* 33:33-42; Jan.-Feb. 1955.

1. A sufficient number of classes in each subject.
2. Sequences of courses so that students may pursue studies without interruption.
3. Scheduling of classes throughout the day so that students may conveniently elect courses.
4. The best possible learning groups by assigning students appropriately among classes.
5. Assigning teachers to teach courses in which they have the greatest interest and knowledge.
6. Full utilization of available facilities and services.
7. Teacher time for curricular "extras" such as field trips, club sponsorship, and co-op supervision.
8. Flexibility in scheduling to provide maximum opportunity for individual student's progress.
9. Maintaining of communication with the central instructional staff, other schools in the system, and the colleges and universities which the local school services. Although the business program should be coordinated with these units, the identity of the local school unit should be maintained.
10. Close relationship with businesses in the community in order to aid in curriculum design and to provide cooperative work opportunities which will contribute to progressive vocational education of students.
11. The knowledge and the utilization of governmental and private resources for financial assistance in business programs.
12. The coordination of business course content with other courses of study.
13. The guidance of counselors and teachers outside the business department in order to inform them of youth's needs for knowledge of business principles and practices.

In exercising the preceding responsibilities, the principal must consider the entire school program. He is responsible for viewing business education as a part of the whole so that the meshing of the entire educational offerings will maximize the benefits to each individual student.

Curriculum Evaluation. The day-to-day operation of a school program carries another major responsibility—the responsibility to recognize and prepare for constant change. In this age of dynamic discovery, change, and application of technological improvements, an instructional program cannot remain static and be up to date. No course can be planned which will never require revision. The principal must meet the challenge of change by establishing procedures to keep himself informed of developments in every instructional area—developments that can be used to improve his school's program.

Changes in the business area have been especially dramatic within the past decade and changes will continue. How can the principal be sure that the business program in his school is incorporating and anticipating these drastic changes?

1. The principal must provide facilities for determining how well the present program fulfills the needs of students in their roles as citizens and wage earners.
2. He should arrange for the gathering of information through surveys, consultants, community business advisory committees, and the like.
3. The principal must urge his business teachers to keep him apprised of research findings that have implications for the department's program.
4. The principal should welcome—indeed, *invite*—state business education supervisors to examine and comment upon the business program.
5. He should also invite persons from the universities who are recognized business education leaders to inform him of the latest thinking in the field.
6. The principal should obtain a course description of each business subject offered, which would include: (a) overall purpose; (b) specific goals; (c) content; (d) standards, both internal (school) and external (business), if different; (e) teaching procedures; (f) inter-relationships with other subjects in the department and in the school; and (g) comparison of item (a-f) with the most recent thinking in the subject area.

Evaluation of the business program requires a continuing effort. It is not something that can be done once every three or five or ten years. Events are happening much too fast today. Business education cannot afford to be lagging in its curricular revisions.

By effective utilization of the preceding resources, a principal can be cognizant of the impact of the business (and other) curriculum on the needs of individuals as well as on the community.

Curricular Adaptation. Through the constant evaluation of the business program, the principal will probably see emerging patterns that should be considered for improvement in the business program. He should:

1. Provide for the dissemination of all evaluation reports to the teachers in the business department;
2. Make available the time, materials, and resources for the department to seriously consider revisions;
3. Oversee all curricular changes to be sure that they meet educational needs of the local school in its community; and
4. See that course descriptions are rewritten and coordinated with the total school program before revisions are approved.

The principal should encourage and support tangible (release time, etc.) experimental programs involving new materials, tools, techniques. For example, the principal should consider the following experimentation, at least for the business department:

1. Programmed learning and ungraded subject offerings permit students to move as slowly as they need to, or as fast as they can. In the skill subjects especially, students develop at their own rates and perhaps should not be held to, or held back because of, traditional course goals semester by semester.
2. Team teaching, utilizing the best talents of each teacher, could enrich course offerings.

II. PERSONNEL

Without a well-qualified staff and a disciplined student body, the best planned program will not be implemented adequately. The principal must assume the responsibilities of (1) selecting well-trained teachers, (2) providing in-service training for his staff, (3) providing a good working professional environment, and (4) working toward a good student relationship.

Selecting Business Teachers. The principal's curriculum evaluation procedures for the business department should keep him apprised of its needs—courses, equipment, personnel. Working cooperatively with the department, he should know the special knowledges and talents of each teacher and what type of new person to secure to complement those already on the job.

1. The principal should be informed as soon as possible when there must be changes or additions to the staff.
2. In selecting a new staff member, the principal must consider not only the needs of the business department, but the overall needs of the school.
3. The principal must evaluate a modern business teacher candidate on other criteria in addition to the traditional transcript and application form. These criteria would include consideration of the following questions:
    a. Does the candidate have knowledges and skill other than those indicated on the transcript, e.g., data processing knowledges which he has learned on his own initiative or through work experience?
    b. Does the candidate, in his approach to business education appear to be rigid, flexible, or amenable to change? The candidate for the modern school must be able to adjust to and to incorporate into his teachings new developments in business applicable to his courses.
    c. Does the candidate's work experience qualify him for teaching business subjects? Is it comparatively recent experience?
    d. Can the candidate contribute to the general education of his students? If the candidate defines his responsibility very narrowly in the teaching of business subjects, he probably will not add much to his student's general education.
    e. Does the candidate demonstrate a desire for professional growth as evidenced through his active participation in professional groups, his reading, his self-educational efforts?

Providing In-Service Training. Business itself, as well as other professional groups, has been ahead of the teaching profession in supporting educational efforts of its employees. Each year time and money measured in billions of dollars are spent for such purposes in industry.

The schools, in comparison, spent little, if anything, on the in-service training of their staffs. Gradually, schools are realizing their short-sightedness, and here and there are increasing evidences of efforts to correct this situation.

1. The principal must provide new members of the business department staff a complete orientation to
    (a) policies and goals of the entire system, their school, and of their department;
    (b) organizational administrative practices and procedures;
    (c) the school's curricular offerings and the relationship of these to the business program, and
    (d) a thorough grounding in the objectives, standards, and interrelationships of all the business courses.
2. The principal must provide his new teachers supervision during their first year of teaching—personally and through the business education department chairman. The new teacher should be encouraged to seek assistance whenever he feels the need of it; and this assistance should be given to help, not to criticize or to doubt, the capabilities of the new teacher.
3. The principal must create an atmosphere for professional growth among his staff through provisions for
    (a) staff meetings at which educational problems are discussed (meetings should not be called for merely disseminating bits of information or procedures which can be duplicated and passed out); and
    (b) participation in professional organizations (funds and time for such activity should be made available—if necessary, such funds should be secured through a P.T.A. or some other group).
4. The principal should require the business teachers to have continued contacts with business and with research—oriented by university professors for keeping up to date on latest developments in both business and teaching.

Providing a Professional Camaraderie. Maintaining the morale of his staff is the chief administrator's responsibility in any organization. In a school high morale is imperative, for studies have shown a high correlation between student achievement and teacher morale. The business department should expect the following in this regard:

1. The principal must give equal consideration to each department in his school, not only to those in which he has the highest personal interest. The principal must learn to listen and to evaluate and act upon each case on its own merits.
2. Communication between the principal and members of the business department must be developed:

 (a) The principal should communicate all items of information that are pertinent to the operation of the school or of the department.
 (b) The principal should respond quickly to staff requests.
 (c) In communicating his decisions regarding individual or group problems, the principal should explain the basis for them and he should not hesitate to change any decision if change is warranted.

3. The principal should not delegate decisions to the city supervisors of business education that he himself should make.
4. The principal who is a capable administrator knows that policies and rules are guide lines only for action. He interprets them in light of the factors in each situation.
5. The principal must respect the individuality of each of his staff members.
6. The principal involves staff in decision-making regarding their specialties and other matters of concern to them.
7. He should be cautious about basing action decisions upon his "feelings" regarding a situation rather than on the facts.
8. He must treat faculty members as professionals so long as they remain on the staff and act accordingly.
9. In selecting a department chairman, he should consider not only the person's knowledge of the business area but also potential or demonstrated leadership qualities in getting the teachers to work cooperatively toward the continuous improvement of the program.
10. The teachers should be able to expect that the principal will back them up in teacher-student-parent relationships.
11. Since the principal is responsible for maintenance of good discipline in the school, he should provide counseling and assistance for teachers who have difficulties with pupils.

Student Relationships to the Business Department. Schools exist for the benefits of youth. Youth's educational needs and interests should be met by the school whenever feasible. Every effort must be continually made to serve each individual student and his unique talents. Specifically, in so far as the business department is concerned:

1. The principal should inform all students in the school of what the business department has to offer and of what benefit the courses might be to them.
2. He should encourage high achievement students to enroll in business courses if their interests run to business.
3. The principal should treat each student as an individual, not a number or an IQ score.
4. Students should feel free to talk to the principal and not fear him.
5. The principal should not assign ("dump") students of low achievement to the business department.

6. If the principal has a problem of many low achievers, he must help the business department (as well as others) to develop courses that would be appropriate for them.
7. He should make certain that all students are provided adequate counseling regarding business courses and job requirements.
8. The principal should arrange meetings between the business teachers and counselors and teachers of other subjects so that efforts may be coordinated.
9. The principal should insist on maintaining student records which include not only grades but special student accomplishments, attendance reports, anecdotal records, and the like. He should make these records available to the teachers.

III. FACILITIES AND FINANCE

Aside from the educational and human side of his job, the principal is responsible for the school as a functioning enterprise. He must clearly delineate responsibility and authority, and he must make the organizational procedures known to every person who works in the school.

Each school has its unique educational goals. To achieve these goals, the school must be effectively organized. Today education is "big business"; schools service more children and adults than ever before in our history. As in business, schools must constantly research and develop the new and changing knowledge and advanced technology. And the school administrators are discovering that the professionals in education, just as the professionals in business, expect to be members of decision-making teams rather than mere day-laborers in the school system. The management of a school, therefore, must employ a sophisticated knowledgeable approach with its professional personnel. No longer will an autocratic, or "play-it-by-ear" type of administrative behavior suffice.

What is the responsibility of the principal to the business department in regard to the overall administrative function of the school?

1. The principal must outline in writing the long- and short-term objectives of the school.
2. These objectives must be interpreted specifically for the business department to determine its role toward the accomplishment of the goals.
3. Duties, responsibilities, and authority must be clearly defined for each position in the department.
4. Clear lines of communication must be established. The principal should expect an annual report from each of the business teachers, stating their professional activities, accomplishments, and recommendations.
5. A chairman with responsibility for administrative details, as well as curriculum development, should be appointed.

6. Requests for supplies, equipment, books, student or stenographic assistance, travel for professional business, professional memberships must be thoughtfully studied and acted upon in light of modern administrative practice. Recommendations for additional monies should be made to the superintendent's office for inclusion in the following year's budget for such matters.
7. Space, storage facilities, and maintenance services must be provided for efficient functioning of the department.
8. Scheduling of classes and courses should be a joint responsibility of the teachers in the department and the principal.
9. The principal maintains inventory records of all business department property.
10. The principal must be aware of outside funds available, such as provided through the Vocational Education Act of 1963.
11. He should know of outside agencies which are willing to volunteer services and time to the school.
12. The principal provides avenues for cooperation with subject supervisors from the superintendent's office.

As the school's executive officer, he is in a position to see the whole picture; and he can best see how the business department can be coordinated with the rest of the school. Most of the preceding responsibilities, of course, would be delegated to the departmental chairman who would report to the principal.

IV. COMMUNITY

The principal is the connecting link between the school and the community. He must get to know the community and bring the school's message to the community. Broad acquaintance of community needs is of particular value to the business department:

1. The principal should know his district from the standpoint of its social, economic, and power structures.
2. The principal should participate in local activities and make himself known to local groups.
3. He should involve the teachers and other personnel in community projects.
4. He must be aware of and explore various community resources that have educational value and he should encourage teachers to use the community as an extension of their classrooms.
5. He should involve the community in school affairs by arranging open houses, curriculum study committees, special events committees, teacher-parent conferences and organizations.
6. Through speaking engagements, informal meetings, and newsletters or school paper, the principal should keep the community informed of what the school is accomplishing and how the school is meeting community needs.

7. The principal must be aware that the community his school serves is larger than the immediate locality in which it is physically placed. In this respect, many times his thinking must be a few steps ahead of the immediate locale.
8. The principal must maintain good relationships with the community so that other school personnel may be cordially received in local business.
9. He should encourage the formation of advisory committees made up of interested business people and placement personnel.

The principal of today's high school has indeed a most complex job. Though it would probably be agreed that his most important single responsibility is the educational growth of boys and girls who attend his school, his job encompasses several corollary functions. He is responsible for the curricula, personnel (staff and students), facilities and finance, and community-school relationships. By working closely with representatives of the staff, students, and persons in the community, he develops a team that helps to direct the purposes of the school and to achieve its goals. Each member of the team, of course, has clearly defined responsibilities with corresponding authority and understands lines of communication. How successfully the team will operate depends upon the principal's leadership qualities.

CHAPTER 16

Profile of the Successful Department Head*

I. David Satlow

The accompanying series of specifications is offered in an attempt to describe the ideal department head, the one with whom teachers enjoy serving and under whose direction business education flourishes. The listing is lengthy because the facets of the job are many. Even though 85 distinct items appear in this profile, it can hardly lay claim to exhaustiveness. Nevertheless, the specifications enumerated do offer food for thought for the new supervisor who is imbued with a desire for professional growth and for the fullest development as an inspiration to his teachers and as a guide to their efforts.

The successful supervisor views business education in its broad perspective. As a result, his working philosophy of business education is related to the overall philosophy of secondary education.

He understands the philosophy of the school in which he is serving and operates within its framework.

He is thoroughly familiar with the community in which the school is located, keenly interested in the trends of the school's population and appreciative of the problems resulting therefrom.

He is an active member of his school's cabinet, participating in the formulation of school policies and in the continuous evaluation of the school curriculum.

He cooperates with the school administration in the implementation of decisions reached at the cabinet meetings.

He enjoys successful communication with the school administration, his opinions being sought regularly on various administrative matters.

He serves in an advisory capacity on business procedures connected with the conduct of the school and makes recommendations for increased efficiency without offending anyone.

He is aware of the objectives of the other instructional departments and is ever alert to learn what they are doing to implement these objectives in the light of current demands.

He serves as a liaison between the administration and the department, interpreting the school's goals to the department and representing the department's point of view to the administration.

He joins other department heads in a co-operative solution of common problems, being ready at all times to accept an appropriate share of the total problem load.

His department is represented in the various phases of the school organization, as, for example, the guidance office, the program committee and extra-curricular activities.

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As a result of sound public relations, his department obtains equitable budgetary allotments for teaching positions, equipment, textbooks and supplies.

The business curriculum at his school is adapted to the needs of the local community.

His department has a syllabus that is uniform for the district and meets the state requirements. These syllabi are kept up to date as a result of periodic surveys in the community and are adapted to local needs.

He selects his teachers on the basis of background and potential. He makes every effort to have them oriented properly to the department and to facilitate their identification with the lifeof the school.

He co-operates with the school's guidance counselors in the establishment of appropriate criteria for the selection of students for the business courses.

He is instrumental in having special classes organized to meet the varying abilities within the student body and sees that these offerings are properly publicized.

He sponsors significant extra-curricular activities whose impact is felt throughout the school.

He is instrumental in establishing the schools' placement bureau and in maintaining it on a high level of usefulness to the students and the business community.

Through democratic procedures, he has his teachers share in the formulation of department policy.

He has realistic standards and zealously strives to maintain them.

He helps to create a wholesome environment for teaching and learning throughout the department.

His knowledge of textbooks, equipment, instructional materials and audio-visual aids is up to date and is reflected in the various learning aids that he places at the disposal of his teachers.

He encourages his teachers to experiment with new courses and new teaching sequences and to develop new instructional materials and evaluating instruments. He facilitates their efforts by sitting down with them at different stages in their planning and by placing a duplicating machine at their disposal.

He fosters co-operative planning and pooling of instructional devices and materials among department members.

He strives for uniform treatment on the part of all teachers of those items in which varying approaches will harm school work in later terms.

In his programming of classes, he makes it possible for students to benefit from the teacher's background of experience.

He builds up teacher programs on the basis of equity, ever avoiding the charge of favoritism in the matter of subjects, sessions or rooms. He assigns each teacher to a varied program, one that balances the more desirable and the less desirable departmental offerings and that avoids boredom and fatigue.

He practices rotation of committee assignments and departmental tasks. He affords all teachers the opportunity to teach all of the subjects and grades offered by the department and to share in both the desirable and undesirable departmental chores.

One difficult class is his regularly. As a result, he has first-hand knowledge of the problems that confront teachers of such classes.

He encourages experimentation. He never loses sight of educational goals. He is ready to abandon an experiment when it appears to be of questionable educational value.

He holds his departmental conferences at set times, ever avoiding last-minute calls. He plans them along lines that will maintain staff interest, keeps them brief and conducts them expeditiously.

He gives teachers the opportunity to have a voice in the formulation of conference agenda. He sees to it that all points of view are expressed before any decision is arrived at by the group and withholds his own point of view until all the others have had the opportunity to present theirs.

He sets aside a portion of each conference for the discussion of classroom problems and an exchange of teaching material and devices.

He accepts decisions made at the departmental conferences as mandates for his supervisory efforts.

He makes sure that all the objectives of business education are aimed at the instructional program and that no single objective is unduly overemphasized or underemphasized.

Through classroom visits, he is aware of how the syllabi are working out in practice and is attuned to the problems that result from the implementation of the syllabi.

He assists teachers with lesson planning according to their needs, providing them with sample plans. He helps them distinguish the essential from the nonessential, but scrupulously avoids mandating any set form or pattern.

He plans his visiting schedule in accordance with teacher needs and pursues a policy of gradualism in his classroom visits, looking for one thing at a time in the teachers' cumulative growth in teaching skill.

He holds personal conferences with teachers within a reasonable time after class visits, at which time questions of lesson unity, mutual interaction and economy of time and effort are analyzed objectively and discussed intelligently.

He gauges teachers on the basis of what they are potentially capable of doing, not on the basis of what their colleagues are doing.

He encourages intervisitation among the teachers and invites some of them to give demonstration lessons at the departmental conferences.

Under his leadership, his department has developed a complete program for the evaluation of learning in which standards are reliable, objective and realistic.

His office and storerooms are models of efficient business management. His office is clean and his desk is orderly. His files are up to date, so that all materials can be located at a moment's notice; they are cleared of deadwood periodically, thus avoiding clutter.

He has an effective system of internal control for equipment, textbooks and supplies, which provides him with instant information concerning the location of any item and his purchasing needs. He orders frugally, so that his budgetary requests are honored regularly.

He plans his day's activities carefully, so that his time is utilized most efficiently. By referring to a log, which he keeps, he can prepare himself for chores of a recurring nature.

He anticipates departmental needs, and, as a consequence, he has all materials in readiness for critical times and all reports submitted when due. He thus spares himself much of the tension that accompanies the meeting of deadlines.

He saves time for creative supervision by routinizing clerical procedures. He has mastered the art of cutting corners and eliminating red tape. He makes effective use of student secretaries. By orienting his secretarial staff, he provides them with valuable office experience and avoids being deluged with paper work.

Lines of communication with his staff are kept open. He does not overwhelm them with a barrage of notices. Whatever notices he does issue are clear and terse.

He serves as an effective clearinghouse for materials and ideas among department members.

He is approachable. His office is open at all times to students, teachers and parents. He is never too busy to listen to students' or teachers' problems.

He is considerate of his teachers. He does not burden them with any chores that can be done by his student secretaries, nor does he ask them for any data that is on file in the department office or in the school's central office.

He respects the personal feelings of his teachers. He avoids embarrassing any teacher in the presence of a colleague or student.

He takes a personal interest in the teachers and their problems, encouraging them to turn to him without any fear of jeopardizing their status.

He assists any department member who is in difficulty. As a result, he has the unswerving loyalty of his staff.

He aids in the personality growth of his teachers by recognizing individual differences among them, encouraging them to express themselves and eliciting from them rather than dictating to them.

He stimulates professional growth on the part of his staff members by opening new horizons for them, having them join professional associations, providing them with occasional reading matter, helping them select courses, encouraging them to write for publication and inspiring them to strive for professional advancement.

He applies the principles of sound mental hygiene in his dealings with staff members by accentuating the positive, commending for good work, recognizing improvement and praising rather than condemning.

He maintains a proper *esprit de corps* within the department and sees to it that harmony prevails among department members.

He follows educational trends in general and current business education developments in particular.

He is aware of curricular trends at the feeder schools and of experimentation with content and teaching methodology in the business education departments of other schools.

Through active contact with the business community, he keeps up with current developments in business.

He maintains professional alertness through reading and occasional courses.

He maintains a professional library, subscribes to various business and business education magazines and makes these available to staff members.

He is active in professional associations, serving on committees and participating in convention programs.

He cooperates with state and local educational authorities in various curricular projects and in evaluation programs.

He engages in research and directs the efforts of others in research.

He arranges exchanges of materials with other schools.

He issues supervisory bulletins that are well organized and that reflect the benefit of his experience, reading and thought.

He co-operates with teacher-education institutions in the guidance of student teachers.

He distinguishes between ends and means, tackling symptoms on an immediate basis while seeking to eliminate causes on a long-term basis.

He does not pass judgment prematurely. He is deliberative, marshaling all pertinent facts before arriving at a decision. When he takes a stand, he does so on philosophical grounds, not on a personal basis.

He maintains equanimity and puts people at their ease. As a result, he is entrusted with the confidence of teachers, students and parents.

He is courteous to all with whom he comes into contact and, as a result, secures their co-operation in many ways.

He is pleasant and cheerful at all times.

He welcomes suggestions and accepts criticism graciously.

He knows what he wants and is resolute though patient in attaining his goals.

He strives for perfection, but is ever mindful of the fact that he is dealing with human beings and their feelings.

He has faith and confidence in his teachers. He recommends department members for administrative assignments that will widen their horizons and enable the school to capitalize on their special abilities.

He is enthusiastic about his work.

The impact of his department and the influence of his personality are felt throughout the school.

CHAPTER 17

Improving the Teacher's Handling of Classroom Routines

I. David Satlow

Educators place great stress on proper lesson planning on the part of the teacher. The teacher's planning of the lesson prior to meeting the class can be compared to the architect's drafting of a blueprint before construction activities are undertaken or to the shopper's preparation of a shopping list before making the rounds of the various stores.

Lesson plans delimit the day's activities. By means of various memos written in professional jargon, lesson plans serve as guides for classroom tours into unexplored realms of the subject. We justify the planning on the ground that in the race against time and in the confrontation of 25 to 35 students in any one class period, class activity that is left to chance will become desultory activity, with the result that digressions will continuously prevent the students from pursuing a direct path toward growth in the subject area's knowledges and skills.

Textbooks in teaching methodology devote much space to discussions of lesson planning and provide the reader with "specimen" plans. Instructors in any methods course devote much class time to a consideration of lesson planning and provide their students with what they consider "ideal" lesson plans. Then, they require the students to prepare lesson plans for criticism and invariably include on the final examination of the course a question requiring the writing of a lesson plan.

When the student completes the methods courses and begins to teach, he is sometimes given guidance by the department head in the preparation of lesson plans and is often furnished "model" lesson plans. In addition, an experienced colleague should be asked to serve as "big brother" to the new teacher and provide further assistance with lesson planning.

Yet, with all this extensive pre-service and in-service guidance in lesson planning, it is found that many classroom performances by teachers—experienced as well as inexperienced—leave much to be desired. In many cases, an inspection of the lesson plans indicates that the teachers have a wholesome appreciation of the need for good plans and that they have evidently employed a systematic approach in their planning. As a matter of fact, the plans prepared by these teachers look fine on paper; they contain all the essentials of a good plan, they provide for optimum progress and they are neither too long nor too short; yet, they are *not* productive of the desired results.

Evidently the planning of a lesson is one thing; the carrying out of a lesson as planned is another. Many teachers have mastered the art of writing perfect plans, blueprints for the realization of the many noble objectives of business education, by describing meaningful activities for both teacher and students; yet, their plans fail to materialize in the classroom.

What seems to be the cause of the failure to translate the plans into action? The answer lies not in one cause, but in many. Yet common to so many teachers, even to those of experience who are not successful in following through on their splendid lesson plans, is the *loss of time on classroom routines* instead of an *economy of time through a routinizing of classroom procedures.* This is an area in which the supervisor can render assistance to his teachers. If the supervisor can help eliminate these weaknesses before they establish themselves firmly as work-habits, his contributions to the teacher's growth in service will be most significant.

Many weaknesses that are related to matters of a routine nature seem to pervade the teaching atmosphere of some classrooms. While any one weakness is insignificant, a preponderance of these impedes instructional progress to the point that anywhere between five and ten minutes of the class period are lost daily. In terms of per cent, the loss of five to ten minutes out of every forty means a daily loss in efficiency between 12 and 25 per cent—the difference between completing a lesson and leaving it suspended in mid-air.

Since classroom routines are so vast, it would be helpful to arrange them in terms of groupings, each group dealing with one part of the teacher-student-classroom relationship. For convenience, 11 categories of classroom routines that invite the supervisor's attention as sources of waste of time and energy in the classroom are listed: (a) routines having to do with the physical condition of the room, (b) routines relating to the seating of students, (c) administrative work in the classroom, (d) chalkboard activities, (e) beginning of the period, (f) handling of the assignment, (g) handling of instructional materials, (h) attention to written work, (i) routines of the lesson proper, (j) evaluation routines, and (k) end-of-lesson routines.

In connection with each of the categories, the questions that follow are indicative of items that a supervisor might look for in his visit to the teacher's class.

Physical Condition of Room

1. Were ventilation and lighting attended to at the beginning of the period?
2. Was the cleanliness of the floor checked before the lesson began?
3. Were desks of teacher and students cleared of materials not required for the lesson?
4. Are the desks relatively free from scribbling and defacing by the students?
5. At the close of the period, was the room made ready for the next class?

Seating of Students

1. Were seats assigned early in the term and according to some set criterion —school rule, by sex, alphabetically, by homeroom?
2. Does the seating arrangement make provision for students with physical defects?
3. Was a seating plan prepared when seats were assigned?

4. Is the seating plan adhered to daily?
5. Are students free to change their seats after attendance has been checked?
6. Are seats reassigned occasionally—after a test, or at the end of a marking period, for example?
7. Does the teacher know all students by name after several weeks or does he find it necessary to refer to his seating plan when calling on students?

Administrative Work

1. On the day programs are to be verified, are they checked at the beginning of the period?
2. Are written reminders of all announcements to be made attached to the seating plan and ready for the class to which the items apply?
3. Was attendance taken by reference to the seating plan?
4. Did returning absentees deposit their absence notes or admittance slips on the teacher's desk before the beginning of the lesson?
5. Were the dates and rooms assigned for the mid-term or final examination written on the chalkboard for students to copy?

Chalkboard Routines

1. Were chalk, erasers, and rulers placed on the board sills at the beginning of the period?
2. Were the boards cleared at the beginning of the period of all work remaining from previous periods?
3. Was work required for the lesson placed on the board at the beginning of the period or as the class was entering the room?
4. Was the material that was to be placed on the boards distributed on a number of index cards so that it might be divided among several students for speedy placement on the boards?
5. Was the unfinished business of the previous day disposed of while the boards were being prepared?
6. As important announcements were made, were they placed on the board so as to avoid misunderstandings and the need for repetition?
7. Were solutions at the board identified by the names of the students who placed them there?
8. Were the boards cleaned by a student assistant without his having to be reminded to do so?

Starting the Period

1. Was the teacher in the room at the beginning of the period?
2. Did the students arrive promptly?
3. Did students proceed to their seats immediately upon arrival?
4. Was the door closed with the ringing of the bell?

5. Did students have on their desks all materials needed for the lesson at the very beginning of the period—pen, pencil, ruler, textbook, notebook, and homework for the day?
6. Did a student write the homework assignment on the board for the remainder of the class to copy without a signal from anyone?
7. Did the students copy the assignment as soon as they entered the room?
8. Did a student write the warm-up assignment on the board, with the class busying itself solving the problems indicated?
9. Were the students who completed the warm-up practice work busy at some worthwhile activity while waiting for other students to complete their work?
10. Was attendance checked by reference to a seating plan while the class was at work on the warm-up materials?
11. Did the teacher circulate about the room to observe student work and to guide individual students having difficulty with their work?

Handling the Assignment

1. Is each assignment numbered for convenience in checking and crediting?
2. Is the assignment for the next day always written on the same board?
3. Did the teacher make a cursory inspection of the homework for the day while students were at work on a warm-up exercise?
4. Was the cursory inspection completed with dispatch?
5. As a result of the cursory inspection, did the teacher select students who were to place on the board parts of the homework assigned for the day?
6. In the course of the cursory inspection of homework papers, did the teacher commend those students who did their work exceptionally well or those who demonstrated significant improvement?
7. Was homework gone over speedily and were papers collected with dispatch?
8. Was the homework for the previous day returned to the students?

Handling Instructional Materials.

1. Did the teacher have on hand at the beginning of the period all materials that would be required for the lesson?
2. Did students bring all materials that were required of them?
3. Is the check-up on book covers and other evidences of the care of school property a continuous one?
4. Was the paper for use by the students counted in advance of the lesson and arranged in units for deposit on the first desk in each row?
5. Were paper and other materials distributed and collected with dispatch?

6. Were the number of interruptions due to the distribution of materials reduced to a minimum by distributing materials at the beginning of the period without vitiating the development phase of the lesson?
7. In the distribution of materials, was provision made for absentees as well as for those present?

Attention to Written Work

1. Does all written work bear the regular school heading?
2. Was the heading placed on the paper at the beginning of the written practice work without reminder by the teacher?
3. Are sorting, recording, and filing of the students work facilitated by an identification number for each student—a number that appears on all work submitted?
4. Were proper account headings and columnar captions placed on all bookkeeping work and appropriate labels for all of the steps in an arithmetical calculation placed by the students without a reminder by the teacher?
5. Were rulers used for all rulings?
6. Was written work collected systematically by rows upon signal and collated in a pre-determined sequence?

The Lesson Proper

1. Was the teacher relieved of many of the classroom routines (checking of attendance, attention to classroom housekeeping duties, and assistance with the distribution and collection of materials) through student participation?
2. Did a class officer keep the class actively occupied at some meaningful activity while the teacher was busy with individual students?
3. Was warm-up practice work done in the notebooks or on paper that was to be collected rather than on scrap paper?
4. Was the warm-up work timed?
5. Was practice work stopped summarily upon signal by the teacher?
6. Were significant items placed on the board as the work evolved during the lesson?
7. Were notebooks open when the new work was taken up?
8. Were transitions from one phase of the lesson to another phase effected quietly, smoothly, and without loss of time?

Evaluation Routines

1. Were tests duplicated in advance for distribution to each student?
2. Was facility of marking attained through objective testing?
3. Was remedial work expedited through diagnostic testing?
4. Were instructions for the test specific?

5. Were tests proofread and worked for solvability before they were duplicated?
6. Was work stopped upon signal and papers collected systematically?
7. Was there efficient transition to the other work that was planned for the period?
8. Were graded papers arranged by rows for expeditious return to the class?
9. Were the corrected papers gone over systematically and speedily?

End-of-Lesson Routines

1. Did the work continue up to the ringing of the bell?
2. Did all work stop with the ringing of the bell?
3. Were boards cleared of all materials at the close of the period?
4. Were chalk and erasers placed in the proper place at the close of the period?
5. Did students leave with dispatch for the next class?
6. Did the students use the appropriate door for exit and thus avoid congestion at the entrance door?

The supervisor should recognize that the foregoing series of questions is confined to the routine aspects of the lesson. No attempt has been made to deal with motivation, lesson aim, development, questioning, use of objective aids, summarization, application, and many of the other facets that make up a well-rounded lesson. Such was not the purpose of this contribution; the purpose was solely the presentation of various items that can be reduced to routine so as to effect an economy of time. The time saved, in turn, should make it possible for the teacher to apply himself more assiduously toward the realization of the goals of the day's lesson.

It should be pointed out that judicious care has to be exercised in use of the questions. A supervisor who attempts to judge the work of a beginning teacher, for example, on the basis of the foregoing questions will be disappointed. Instead of encouraging the teacher, the supervisor will discourage him. Rather than a check-list, the questions should be viewed as a source list from which the supervisor might select items that would be in keeping with the teacher's needs and readiness.

In his classroom visits, the supervisor has an unusual opportunity to observe the way in which the teacher handles matters of a routine nature. With his understanding of the teacher's personality, he can decide which of these matters should be given top priority in his recommended course of action for the teacher.

CHAPTER 18

Competencies Needed By a Business Teacher

Gerald A. Porter

No program of business education has significance apart from the instruction that is offered in it and the co-curricular activities which are associated with it. It is the business teacher who offers the instruction and motivates students to acquire the business knowledges and abilities essential to them. It is the business teacher who initiates the co-curricular activities that are most appropriate for business students and who provides the enthusiasm and energetic leadership required to keep them going. Thus it is the business teacher who constitutes the key factor in the success or failure of any program of education for business.

In an article entitled, "Evaluating the Competency of a Business Teacher," the importance of evaluating competence was pointed up.[1] In addition, the primary factors to be evaluated were established and specific criteria were indicated for each factor. That article was designed to demonstrate how an administrator or supervisor can reach a composite decision on the worth of a business teacher to his school, to his community, and to himself. Today, the material presented in that article appears to be as readily applicable as it was seven years ago.

SPECIFIC ELEMENTS IN EVALUATION

The primary factors in the evaluation of a business teacher which continue to be applicable are:

1. The appropriateness of the subject matter that he teaches
2. The suitability of specific methods of teaching that he utilizes
3. The effectiveness with which he accomplishes evaluation of student achievement
4. The cordiality with which he maintains student relationships
5. The sincerity of his relationships with fellow teachers and administrators
6. The evidence that exists of his continuous professional development
7. The degree of his adjustment to community life.[2]

In arriving at conclusions on each of the factors in the total evaluation of the competence of a business teacher, the administrator or supervisor should consider numerous minor elements or criteria connected with each of the seven factors. It is hoped that the reader now may be challenged to refer to the earlier article for the purpose of analyzing each of the specific criteria indicated there for the seven primary factors in the evaluation of business teacher competence. Continuing here with consideration of the competencies needed by a business teacher, certain of the more subtle and less-discernible elements basic to effectiveness as an educator will be examined.

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[1] Porter, Gerald A. "Evaluating the Competency of a Business Teacher." *National Business Education Quarterly* 24: 16-19; May 1956.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 18-19.

AWARENESS OF CURRENT EMPHASIS ON ECONOMICS

Having been initiated years ago as special preparation for narrowly defined business occupations, business education has developed with the economic expansion of this nation to the point where it now has two interdependent but distinct fundamental and underlying objectives. They are to—

1. Provide all students with opportunities to develop understanding of the American private enterprise system and those phases of personal business and economic activities that concern every member of organized society
2. Provide students who want to earn their living in office service and distributive occupations with opportunities to develop the levels of proficiency essential to initial employment.

There are at present business teachers who offer instruction only in subjects such as shorthand, bookkeeping, or retailing. These teachers devote all of their time to preparing relatively few students for employment in office or store occupations. In most cases, such teachers much prefer helping a few students to achieve clearly defined levels of performance in business skill subjects to helping greater numbers of students gain the broader kinds of knowledge involved in the study of economics or in the development of ability in money management. This is not in itself entirely objectionable, and the individual teacher should be permitted to teach that about which he believes he knows the most.

However, in most secondary school situations it is essential that the business teachers endeavor at all times to contribute to attainment of the two fundamental objectives of business education. Business teaching effectiveness should extend beyond the objective of job preparation. The business teacher who feels concern only for that one objective is, in effect, only half a business teacher.

At the same time that a teacher works hard at occupational preparation, he should be fully aware of the growing national need for understanding of economics and the need on the part of all individuals to know how to manage their income and gain for themselves financial security. He should give substantial support wherever and whenever possible to educational endeavors aimed at fulfilling these significant needs. He may not teach a class in general business at the tenth-grade level, or a class in economics for twelfth-grade students. But he certainly should encourage the offering of such classes, and he should encourage other teachers who are more interested and perhaps better prepared to teach such classes to do so.

For the administrator or supervisor interested in evaluating the effectiveness of the business teacher, there are clues as to the extent of his awareness of the economic needs of students and the curriculum developments that are associated with those needs. For example, the business teacher who is fully aware of the need for economic education does, by means of graduate classes, summer workshops, television presentations, and other learning situations, endeavor to gain more knowledge of the content of economics and more ability in the methods required in offering instruction in economics.

He is a business teacher who is prone to talk about economics and money management. He is quite likely to come to the administrator or supervisor with materials such as those distributed by the Joint Council on Economic Education or by the National Committee on Family Finance Education. He takes advantage of any opportunity to express his desire to teach general business and economics. Or, if he is already teaching these subjects, he vigorously attempts to recruit greater numbers of students for his classes.

Conversely, the business teacher who continues to promote only occupational preparation evidences lack of knowledge that there is now much more to be learned. He indicates by his actions that he is not fully aware of current changes and the developments in business and economic education which have occurred during the past 10 to 15 years.

APPROPRIATE USE OF EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES

Materials and equipment for instruction in business and economics exist in great abundance. True, certain items of instructional material and equipment are not so good as teachers would like them to be. In general, however, the business teacher has only to analyze and select with care an extensive array of educational resources for use by students. Yet, in far too many schools, the business teacher and his students appear to be doing without many of the things commonly associated with effective instruction. And, in most of these cases, lack of funds is not the major reason for the lack of resource materials.

The most efficient business teacher undoubtedly is one who attempts to utilize all resources available. When the administrator or supervisor requests a statement of needs at budget-making time, the teacher is ready with a lengthy list of materials and equipment. He is fully aware that good business education is expensive in that it requires more equipment than many other subjects. However, he is not apologetic about this, nor does he ask diffidently for funds for his department. Rather, he forcefully makes known all of the needs in business education and convinces the administration of the appropriateness of the required expenditures. It must be recognized, of course, that the business teacher must know how his administrator is going to react to different approaches and he should plan his strategy accordingly.

It is significant that in many secondary schools only small amounts of money are spent for library materials to be used by business students. This is true even though extensive bibliographies of business books, magazines, bulletins, and other materials are available. A truly competent business teacher knows about the materials that are available and requests them for the library. He is a person who recognizes that knowledge in business is increasing so fast that it can no longer be covered adequately by means of in-class presentations alone. He recognizes, too, that the role of the business teacher is to provide students with basic concepts and sources of information so that they may educate themselves after leaving school. He attempts to orient his students toward capability for continued education by requiring them to do library study and by helping them to solve business problems through the use of simple research procedures.

Conversely, the less effective business teacher emphasizes textbook-based instruction in his classes and tends to rely much on workbooks and published tests. He does not demonstrate initiative and creativity in the use of educational resources available to him, but he could through exerting a little effort obtain and utilize them.

While library materials have been pointed up here, a similar situation exists with the use of audiovisual aids such as the controlled reader, overhead projector, and other types of equipment. Some excellent materials are available for use with the controlled reader, and it is now a simple matter to prepare transparencies for the overhead projector. Many business teachers know about this equipment and make good use of it. The less competent teachers not only do not make use of it, but appear to be completely unaware that it exists.

At a time when team teaching is a much talked about practice and some business departments are utilizing it, there are certain business teachers who will not accept the professional responsibility of working with student teachers from teacher-education schools. Thus, they again avoid the use of an excellent educational resource—a second adult in the classroom. An indication of competence in teaching is provided when the business teacher invites the opportunity to become a cooperating teacher. By aiding a student teacher, the experienced business teacher fulfills an important professional responsibility and at the same time brings to his classroom new insights, youthful vigor, and enthusiasm that are instantly used to advantage by high school students. In contrast, the less competent business teacher shortchanges his students in two ways—in terms of his own lack of ability and in terms of his refusal to permit another person to aid in the instructional process. It should be noted that this is in no way an argument for placing student teachers with cooperating teachers who have demonstrated incompetence in the classroom.

EXPEDITING OF APPLICATION OF BUSINESS ABILITIES

Teachers of business subjects have a significant opportunity to reinforce learning in such subjects as language arts, mathematics, and the social sciences as they offer instruction designed for the development of business knowledges and abilities. In addition, through co-curricular activity programs, business teachers can expedite the application of business abilities along with fundamental abilities gained in other subject matter areas.

Typewriting is a subject having much general usefulness for people when fulfillment of their personal, social, civic, and occupational responsibilities requires extensive, clear, and rapid communication. By means of instruction in typewriting, then, the business teacher should attempt to develop in students the ability to apply typewriting skills to the solution of communications problems. The administrator or supervisor who evaluates the work of the business teacher should seek out evidence of the expediting of application on the part of students. For example: Does the business teacher teach students to compose at the typewriter? Do the students become mere copiers or do they develop adeptness in the use of the machine so that their thought processes are aided, and creative composition and other kinds of tasks are readily accomplished? Ability to stroke the keys of a typewriter rapidly is one thing; the ability to use the typewriter to expedite communication is quite another skill. The more competent business teacher stresses the second kind of ability, and his students tend to make extensive use of typewriters in activities apart from the typewriting classroom.

In shorthand, too, there is an illustration of the need for expediting the use of a valuable skill. Some business teachers appear to get wrapped up in the process of teaching students to read, write, and transcribe shorthand characters. They seem to be unaware that shorthand is a subject with a variety of uses apart from the verbatim recording of dictation. As in the case of typewriting, the teacher must expedite the use of shorthand or it becomes something that is forgotten in a relatively short period of disuse.

The competent business teacher is aware of all this and provides in his work with students examples of appropriate emphasis on what promotes the use of shorthand. In evaluating the shorthand teacher, the administrator or supervisor should seek answers to such questions as: Do the students use shorthand in taking notes in other classes? Do the students realize that they possess an ability that is unique and useful to them in a variety of ways? If appropriate positive answers are provided for such questions, the evaluator can be reasonably certain that the business teacher is demonstrating a high level of teaching ability as well as helping students to make good use of what they learn.

Additional examples of effective business teaching as it relates to the use of business abilities should be available to persons interested in evaluating the competence of the business teacher. Instruction in bookkeeping should be such that students gain a knowledge of routines and principles that they can utilize in their personal lives. In the office practice class, students should apply knowledge of mathematics learned earlier to the solving of problems with a machine. Application of mathematics and machine manipulation skills should become a natural thing. Lack of ability is indicated on the part of the business teacher when his students tend to continue to use pencil and paper techniques for solving their mathematical problems when there are machines available for that purpose.

Co-curricular activities have much to offer in expediting the application of business abilities on the part of students. The competent and energetic business teacher will provide co-curricular activities for his students and will exert the kind of leadership that causes large numbers of them to participate in such activities. Through a business club, or through a chapter of

Future Business Leaders of America, a program of activities can be conducted through which pupils can enrich and extend their capabilities.

In activities such as are provided by FBLA, students learn how to compete honorably with their fellow students, how to engage in individual and group business enterprises, how to hold office and direct the affairs of the group, and how to work with representatives of other student organizations. They find opportunities to enhance their abilities to speak and to write. They gain poise and tactfulness along with better grooming and ease in developing acquaintanceships. They find opportunities to use their typewriting, shorthand, bookkeeping, and selling abilities. They utilize in a variety of ways their knowledge of economics, general business, and money management. They develop a grasp of the significance of life apart from mundane school-room activities and begin to understand better the patterns of adult life. The business teacher who develops this kind of program exhibits a competence that contributes much to the total education of the boys and girls of his community. In a substantial manner he promotes good public relations and builds interest in the school on the part of parents and businessmen. An active and productive co-curricular program in business education should indicate to the school administrator or supervisor that he is working with a competent business teacher who expedites the application of business and other kinds of abilities possessed by pupils.

PROMOTION OF BETTER BUSINESS EDUCATION

Perhaps the most difficult thing for a business teacher is facing up to the many activities in which he may participate and exercising wise choice in what to do. Time and energy are the controlling factors and all teachers find that these are limited.

The business teacher should plan carefully the instruction he offers. Yet, he is generally overloaded and has little time available for this purpose. His tendency is, therefore, to "conduct" his classes rather than to "teach" them. The school administrator or supervisor in his evaluation effort should determine whether the business teacher follows the daily lesson planning that is so essential to good teaching of business subjects. He should determine also whether ample time is spent in curriculum revision and other work basic to instruction.

Business teachers should work with other teachers in their professional organizations. It is true that some business teachers hold the attitude that they are interested only when the professional organization has *much to offer them.* The dollar cost of professionalism in business education is comparatively small. Thus, the administrator or supervisor should expect his business teachers to engage in some solid, joint action aimed at improvement of themselves and the program in which they work.

Business teachers should study continuously to improve their teaching and all parts of their work. The literature in business education is extensive and most of it is quite good. Reading of *The Balance Sheet* and the

Business Teacher (free to all business teachers) is not enough. Such reading should merely whet the business teacher's appetite for study of many additional magazines, bulletins, monographs, books, and research studies. Only when there is evidence of a genuine attempt through study to keep abreast of developments in business and in business education should a business teacher be rated as fully competent.

This chapter and the article published in 1956 (referred to at the beginning) may function as companion or complementary items in the evaluation of the competence of a business teacher. Studied together these two articles might enable one to gain some comprehension of the broader bases for evaluation of business teaching as well as certain of the more minute or less readily discernible elements.

Accurate evaluation of the work of any teacher takes time and it must be accomplished in an atmosphere of cooperation. It must include careful consideration of classroom teaching effectiveness; student relationships; activities with other teachers, administrators, and parents; and general professional growth.

In this chapter an attempt has been made to point up that there are certain elements in business education which reflect competence on the part of the teacher but which are not as readily discernible as others. It is axiomatic that a business teacher must today exhibit an awareness of the emphasis being placed on the gaining of economic literacy and ability in money management. He should be endeavoring to promote the development of instructional programs conducive to this kind of business education. The business teacher should be making appropriate use of the many educational resources available to him. The business teacher should be expediting in every way possible application by pupils of the business abilities they possess. And, the business teacher should be promoting the advancement and improvement of business education by means of curriculum development and other kinds of professional work with his fellow educators.

It is undoubtedly true that no business teacher can be expected to fulfill all obligations that may be directed his way. Thus, an administrator or supervisor must first attempt to rate the business teacher on each of the many elements that should be considered. A composite evaluation, based on the ratings on each of the individual elements, should then be compiled. On the overall composite rating the final determination of the extent of competence should rest.

CHAPTER 19

Standards of Achievement in Business Education

Donald J. Tate

In 1941, Frederick G. Nichols wrote: "The topic . . . is a difficult one. . . . As we contemplate its many ramifications, many baffling questions arise. . . ."[1] Two decades have passed since Professor Nichols wrote these words. During these 20 years, business teachers have pondered and researched the many problems he raised. But rather than reach satisfactory conclusions to the questions raised in Nichols' time, today's teachers face an even greater number of seeming imponderables precipitated by the automated office, the growing demand for office workers on all levels, and the tremendous increase in school enrollments, as well as the increasing dropout rate in high schools.

To bring the problem into perspective, one should review the questions that have been raised over standards both during Nichols' time and since then. Further, one should probe the complexities of determining standards for the office and for the school. Having done this, one should understand that suggested office production standards are, at best, no more than a guide for school achievement standards.

Questions About Standards

1. Has business determined selection standards for beginning workers? Standards for promotion?
2. How do levels of competency vary within offices? From office to office?
3. Can production standards be determined for all office activities? For part of them?
4. Is American business willing to hire on the basis of a universal testing program? Or can they?
5. Can schools really measure for office competence?
6. Are schools willing to base marks on uniform standards of achievement?
7. Should students be evaluated on the basis of occupational intelligence as well as on occupational competency?
8. How do standards differ between subjects taught on the personal-use and vocational bases? Are we headed in the right direction?
9. Are we making any progress toward standards of achievement for business education?

Standards set for output are valid only to the extent that factors affecting output have been standardized. For example, desks and filing cabinets are of standardized sizes and heights; paper of standardized weights is cut into standardized sizes. But, office layouts from business to business have not been standardized, even for businesses of a similar nature.

Many more factors contribute to the differences in output of work in the office. To put them in perspective, one should consider that output is dependent upon the motions made both by the worker and by the speed of those motions. If a worker's motions are minimal, he is using good methods; if they are numerous and awkward, he is using poor methods. If a worker's speed results in high output, he is exerting considerable effort with considerable skill under good working conditions. Speed without skillful motions exerted under favorable conditions accomplishes little.

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[1] Nichols, Frederick G. "Standards in Business Education." The NATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION QUARTERLY 10: 13-16, 50-53; October 1941.

Workers develop certain methods of procedures because they differ in aptitudes, temperament, and physical characteristics; because they were instructed differently by different teachers and supervisors; and because their work stations and contiguous facilities vary to marked degrees.

The effort one exerts depends not only upon his physical condition but also upon his ability to get along with his supervisors and other workers, with his family and friends. Effort is also affected by such incentives as salary, job security, opportunity for advancement, and recognition for work well done. In addition, environmental factors such as light, heat, and ventilation detract from, or enhance, one's efforts to produce.

The skill underlying speed of motions and, in turn, output depends upon one's health, one's coordination and dexterity, and the opportunity to exercise one's skill sufficiently to insure continued development. Application in the office is just as important as practice is in the classroom.

Even when all the factors mentioned are perfect, an individual's output is dependent upon his will to work. The question is, Does he want to work to capacity under existing conditions?

A review of the factors affecting standards clearly shows that the task of really standardizing these conditions for all businesses, for businesses of similar nature, or even for internal operations in a large enterprise is impossible. Business standards are at best only guides.

Standardization of job classifications and tests for office employment are lacking. For example, a recent survey showed that 18 classifications were used for the worker whose primary job is typewriting: clerk-typist, typist, statistical typist, transcribing-machine operator, stenographer, clerk, teller-typist, receptionist, key-punch operator, addressograph operator, flexowriter, graphotype operator, policy typist, robot typist, telefax clerk, telephone trainee, and vari-typist.[2] Some offices classify clerks, typists, and stenographers on as many as four levels.

Testing procedures are also quite varied. Some use no tests, only interviews. A number of firms use standardized tests; others, tests developed internally. Some companies use untimed tests; others, timed. The length of tests and conditions under which they are administered vary. The content may consist of straight copy, letters, business forms, or carbons.

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[2] Jones, Virginia; Norwood, Carolyn V.; and Rivers, Cora. "Typing Standards: Business vs. Schools." *Business Education World* 39: 29; April 1959.

In spite of the lack of standardization in standards, business has recognized the problem and has spent considerable sums of money in trying to establish equitable standards for entry jobs and for purposes of promotion. In fact, business cannot set up managerial controls without some sort of standards. Without a point of departure, a process or a cost evades control.

For many years, office management has set up controls based on past performance, which is merely a record of what has been done and how much it cost. Even management recognizes the inherent fallacy of such procedures—the fallacy of believing what one *did* is what one *should* do.

In essence, most standards in offices are based on what is believed to be a fair day's work. Management and labor have used a fair day's work as a criterion in bargaining for years. Generally, a fair day's work has been measured by observing what workers on the job have done at particular work stations in particular offices.

That these work stations and offices are not standardized is an elemental fact. Therefore, office management in trying to be fair has defined average skill and effort. If the day's work has been based on the work of a superior group of office workers, the average amount of work expected will be high. If based on a mediocre or less than mediocre group, the average amount of work will be low. Workers with the highly desirable combination of superskill and excessive effort will easily exceed a fair day's work, which is only some kind of average. Workers with the unfortunate combination of poor skill and poor effort will not reach the output established to be a fair day's work.

Regardless of the variances in office standards revealed by surveys, teachers can profit from applying the findings in their classrooms. No doubt, Professor Nichols would have been pleased in 1940 to have had the 1950 surveys of the National Office Management Association which summarized the requirements in 971 companies for beginning stenographers, beginning file clerks, and beginning calculating-machine operators. This survey showed the following NOMA standards.[3]

Beginning Stenographers

Typewriting from straight copy, words a minute:

40	50	60	Others
12%	60%	26%	2%

Shorthand writing speed, words a minute:

70	80	90	100	Other
9%	33%	29%	26%	3%

Transcription speed, words a minute:

	30	40	50	60	70	Other
Shorthand	12%	41%	31%	12%	2%	2%
Machine	8%	33%	37%	19%	2%	1%

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[3] Dame, J. Frank, and Brinkman, Albert R. *Guidance in Business Education.* Third edition. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1961. p. 259-61.

Beginning Stenographers (Continued)

	Not Important	Important	Very Important
General knowledge	9%	79%	12%
Spelling	0	28%	72%
Grammar	1%	33%	66%
Accuracy	0	28%	72%
Adaptability	2%	65%	33%
Intelligence	0	72%	28%
Memory	7%	72%	21%
Able to work well under pressure	9%	61%	30%

Beginning File Clerks

Files, in units per hour alphabetically—

5" x 3" cards =	100	150	200	
	8%	27%	23%	
	250	300	Over 300	Other
	21%	16%	4%	1%
8½" x 11" sheets =	100	150	200	
	22%	28%	30%	
	250	300	Over 300	Other
	9%	8%	3%	0

	Not Important	Important	Very Important
General knowledge	22%	69%	9%
Knowledge of alphabet and no. sequence	1%	30%	69%
Alertness	1%	60%	39%
Accuracy	0	27%	73%
Adaptability	9%	69%	22%
Spelling	14%	61%	25%
Intelligence	4%	80%	16%
Memory	6%	53%	41%
Able to work well under pressure	18%	60%	22%

Beginning Calculating Machine Operators

Addition: Number of columns of 30 figures of 3 to 5 digits per figure, added per hour—

50	60	70	Other
18%	50%	26%	6%

Multiplication: Number of items (problems) of 3 digits times 3 digits to 5 digits times 5 digits, multiplied per hour—

300	350	400	450	500	Other
18%	24%	28%	19%	9%	2%

Beginning Calculating Machine Operators (Continued)

Subtraction: Number of problems of 4 to 6 digits less 3 digits to 6 digits, subtracted per hour—

250	300	350	400	Other
17%	33%	27%	21%	2%

Division: Number of problems of 4 to 5 digits divided by 3 to 5 digits, divided per hour—

120	130	140	150	160
10%	17%	9%	26%	12%

170	180	190	Other
13%	8%	1%	4%

SCHOOL STANDARDS

Business teachers tend to define their vocational course objectives in terms of standards associated with business. Job competency is the general criterion they use.

Even though teachers frequently raise the questions listed at the beginning of this article, they often accept guides such as those set forth herein as absolutes. Converting these "average" standards into evaluation guides for the first, second, or third semester of typewriting, for first and second years of shorthand, and so forth, further complicates the whole area of standards of achievement in business education.

But, in spite of the ramifications in the entire area of standards of achievement, business teachers do realize the necessity for setting up standards. They also realize that evaluation based on standards is necessary to motivate and improve learning, to judge one's own teaching effectiveness, to analyze student weaknesses and strengths, and to assign the inevitable grades.

In studying the subject of standards of achievement, teachers have determined that certain standards apply to the introductory stage of skill learning, to the improvement stage of skill learning, and to the application level of skill building.

THE FUTURE

Businessmen and business teachers will no doubt continue to search for definitive answers to their problems of standards of achievement for office workers and for students who will become office workers. After one probes the host of variables involved, he might well conclude that at best we will tend only toward definitive answers. As long as people are individuals, as long as no two offices and no two school situations are alike, as long as technology introduces almost unbelievable changes in the business environment, what is there except tending toward what we want, but can't reach and can't really define?

CHAPTER 20

Budgets in Business Education

Robert M. Swanson

Budgeting has been called by some the process of worrying about how to spend money before it has been received. For others the budget is a means to prevent the spending of money. Neither of these definitions is acceptable in business education where the emphasis must be placed upon providing a climate in which good learning can take place.

Budgeting in business education involves planning the educational program, deciding upon the methods to be used to implement the program, and controlling the use of funds so that the planned-for learning can occur.

What is a budget? A budget in business education is a sound educational program expressed in dollars and cents. The budget is constructed upon financial data compiled from previous experience and an educated guess about the future. Before a good budget can be estimated, the objectives of the learning experiences must be determined and translated into specific courses and activities to be provided, equipment needed, supplies to be used, and services to be purchased. In a business budget, the entire estimate must include cost of labor, materials, and equipment plus the profit that is desired. In business education, the cost of labor is normally a part of the personnel budget to be supervised by the school administration and not by the department of business education. Profit is another element that does not need to be included in the planning of the educational budget.

PLANNING THE CURRICULUM

Although curriculum construction is not the topic for discussion here, a few words about its relation to the budget are necessary. Before an estimation of cost can be made, the item to be purchased must be known specifically. Many business education programs linger along without much improvement because the participants cannot justify requests for additional funds except in very general "hoped for changes" that will cost money.

A desire to expand the practice problems in office machines may require additional stencils, paper, workbooks, or other materials. The need to introduce additional transcription practice for prospective secretaries may require the acquisition of additional typewriters or dictation tapes and records. The compelling need to accomplish more in the same amount of class time may require the purchase of special audio or visual equipment. Sufficient equipment may be on hand, but there may be a need for additional practice materials such as file boxes, mimeoscopes, dictation and transcription units, or reference books. Plans for maintaining or expanding the learning opportunities will require the expenditures of funds. These expenditures cannot be justified, however, without specific details about the need.

The planning for the educational program, the budget needed to achieve it, and the adjustments to the plan when sufficient funds are not available, require that those instructors who will be involved in the teaching are also involved in the budget planning. As the size of the staff grows larger, total involvement of the faculty will become more difficult. In most instances, representatives of various interested groups rather than the entire departmental faculty will be included in the planning. It is important that all persons who have participated in the planning also be acquainted with the final budget decision, know why the funds may not have been available, and understand how adjustments were made to the basic plan for use of these funds.

PLANNING THE BUDGET DETAILS

Some type of form on which the results of the planning can be expressed or written and eventually summarized will help keep the details in mind. These forms can also provide the basis for presenting a justification for the budget requests to the proper school authorities.

The planning for converting an educational plan into dollars and cents might utilize a form such as is shown in Exhibit A.

One of these forms should be prepared for each of the kinds of educational activities within the department. Some of the typical learning situations around which the budget can be estimated are: bookkeeping, typewriting, machines, secretarial practice, shorthand, basic business subjects, and departmental administration. Although some other major grouping might be used, these will suffice for illustrative purposes.

All requests for funds should be tied to the proposed educational plan and information about past financial costs. For instance, the mistake is often made of requesting funds for maintenance of typewriters without relating this to the educational plan for which they are intended. It is, for instance, easier to say "no" to a request for additional typewriters as such than it is to say "no" to a request for typewriters based upon known facts about the plan to be accomplished and the *number of students to be served in the typewriting classes.*

In Exhibit A, space is provided for each proposed budgetary expenditure, the relation of this item to the total need, and the estimated cost.

The first budgetary item shown in the illustration is for typewriters. The explanation is that with the growth of enrollments in typewriting, it is anticipated that a total of 120 students will enroll for this course during the year. Inasmuch as two periods a day must be set aside so that the typewriters can be used for the shorthand transcription and machines classes, the 120 students in typewriting must be distributed over the remaining four class periods of the day. One hundred and twenty students divided among the four periods would indicate that a minimum of 30 typewriters must be available to meet the estimated need.

At the present time the school has 24 typewriters reserved for instructional purposes. Therefore, an additional 6 typewriters must be purchased to bring the total to 30. Item 3 indicates a tie-in with these additional typewriters and 6 additional typewriter tables and chairs that are listed.

EXHIBIT A

Budget year: 1961-62

Area: Typewriting Department: Business Education

Budgetary Item	Explanation	Est. Cost
Typewriters (Additional)	Anticipated enrollment: 120 students Periods available for class: 4 Number of students per class: 30 Number of typewriters now available: 24 Number of typewriters needed: 6 Cost of additional typewriters @ $155 each This estimated cost based on information from three local sales representatives of typewriter manufacturers.	$930.00
Typewriters (Trade-in's)	Repair records and age of machines indicate that 3 typewriters should be traded in and new ones purchased. Estimates received from local sales representatives of typewriter companies were considered in this estimate. Number of machines to be purchased: 3 Purchase price of the new machines: $155 Total cost of new machines: $465.00 Less trade-in value of old machines: $35 105.00	360.00
Tables Chairs	For 6 new typewriters: @ $45 = $270.00 For 6 new typewriters: @ $20 = 120.00	390.00
Typewriter Ribbons	Number of typewriter ribbons used during 1959-60: 72 Number of typewriters: 24 Number of ribbons used per machine: 3 Estimated number of ribbons for 30 machines: 90 Current cost of typewriter ribbons: $.75 (90 x .75)	67.50
Typewriter Repairs	Total cost of repairs and summer maintenance overhaul: $302.40 Cost per machine: $12.60 Number of machines estimated: 30 Less 9 new machines which will be under warranty for one year: 30 — 9 = 21 Number of machines to be maintained: 21 (21 x 12.60)	264.60
Textbooks	Needed to accompany additional typewriters: 6 Needed because textbooks now being used are worn out: 6 Total new textbooks needed: 12 Cost per text $1.75 (12 x 1.75)	21.00
TOTAL ESTIMATED COST FOR TYPEWRITING		$2,033.10

Item 4 in the exhibit is for supplies needed to keep these typewriters in use. There is some merit in listing the individual items of supply. A lump sum statement is always easier to reject or reduce than an itemized statement that is tied again to the anticipated enrollments or the educational program.

Only typewriter ribbons are shown as items of supply for the machines in Exhibit A. This would assume that other needed supplies are furnished by the student or provided out of another budgetary account not included in the departmental budget. (For example, brushes used in cleaning the type bars might be another item of supply.) The consumption of these supplies should be determined on a per machine or per student basis. Based on consumption in previous years, a per student consumption is determined, then multiplied by the estimated number of students for the year under consideration. For instance, it might be determined that during the previous year there was a consumption of 1.5 typewriter erasers per student. This item times the 120 students estimated for the next year will result in a need for 180 typewriter erasers. The exhibit shows a consumption of 3 typewriter ribbons per typewriter for the past year. If there are 30 typewriters in use during the next year, there will be a need for 90 ribbons.

Item 5 in the exhibit indicates the estimated costs of maintaining the typewriters through a regular program of repair and annual inspection. The example is for a situation without a regular repair contract. No attempt is made through this illustration to argue the merits of the repair contract versus any other method of handling payment for repairs and maintenance. Only experience and local costs of such contracts will be the basis for determining which of the two plans will be the better.

Item 6 refers to the educational supplies used with the typewriting classes. This refers to supplies other than those directly connected with the operation of the typewriters. Included in this section should be the additional texts that may have to be purchased, the paper that may be supplied to the students, and other educational supplies as needed according to the plan devised for instruction in typewriting.

In Exhibit A, the educational item listed is textbooks. Twelve additional textbooks are needed according to the plan. Six of these are for use with the six additional typewriters. Six textbooks are replacements for those worn out through use. The school for which this budget is being prepared requires that each student provide his own paper. If the school has a policy of providing stationery, then consumption per student in typewriting must be computed from previous experience and used as a basis for estimating the need for the projected 120 students in typewriting for the coming year.

The supplies listed in the exhibit are intended to be examples of what might be included rather than to serve as an exhaustive list of all the items that should be shown.

When this sheet has been completed, it will show the projected estimates of what it will cost to provide the typewriting instruction for the coming year.

The totals for each section will be transferred to a summary sheet as a means of showing the total budget in capsule form.

Exhibit B is an example of a summary sheet. The summary sheet is needed especially in presenting the proposed budget to the authorities for approval. The individual sheets for each course or classification of expenditure will become important at this stage when information is needed to substantiate the total request.

EXHIBIT B

Budget year: 1961-62 Department: Business Education

SUMMARY OF DEPARTMENTAL AREAS

	Area	*Total Estimate*
1.	Typewriting	$1,373.10
2.	Bookkeeping	264.00
3.	Office Machines/Secretarial Practice	1,459.60
4.	Shorthand	25.00
5.	General Business Subjects	142.30
6.	Departmental Administration	32.00
	TOTAL	$3,296.00

NOTE: Details of area estimates are attached.

The individual estimate sheets will have a subsequent and more important purpose when the budget has been approved and control must be exercised over actual expenditures.

COORDINATION OF THE BUDGET REQUESTS

A budget submitted from one department or area of activity must be coordinated with those submitted from others. This coordinating function assures that balance in utilizing the funds available is achieved. No one activity or department is hampered in its growth and continued operation because funds are inequitably distributed. No one department benefits at the expense of another.

Typically, the coordination function in high school must be performed by the principal, business manager, or superintendent. Within the department of business education care must be exercised that expenditures for some activities (such as typewriters or machines) will not prevent the acquisition of items needed for another activity (such as supplies, or even equipment needed in bookkeeping, office practice, or shorthand).

In some school situations, individual teachers of a subject may be asked to prepare the estimate for their area. All teachers of bookkeeping, for example, should plan the budgetary needs for the bookkeeping courses. The head of the department performs the coordinating function. He reviews the various proposals to assure that a balance is maintained in the planned expenditures for the department. The department head may utilize a committee of teachers drawn from the various subjects to assist him in this review. It is important that the plan be reviewed in terms of all educational objectives to assure that a balance is maintained.

CONTROLLING THE BUDGET

Once a budget has been approved, some means to control the expenditure of funds must be established. This control will serve two useful purposes: (a) assuring that funds are spent as planned and (b) providing for the collection of information needed for future budget planning.

The approved budget requires constant review of the expenditure of funds in terms of the objectives established so that necessary changes can be made. A budget is only a plan for spending. As educational plans change, the budget plans must change also. When student enrollments are completed, it may be discovered that 140 students have asked for an opportunity to learn typewriting. With the projected equipment, only 120 can be accommodated. New plans must be made: Shall the classes be limited to 120, or should additional typewriters be acquired for the unexpected 20 students? Would it be possible to rent rather than buy the additional machines? Would this be desirable? The changes to be made in the budget will depend upon the educational objectives and what is desirable in terms of serving the students.

Many times, additional students can be accommodated if an additional class in typewriting is placed in the schedule. This will not require the purchase of additional machines. However, this will increase the need for additional supplies. Can these supplies be provided within the current provisions of the budget?

Where will the additional funds be found for these changes which occur after a budget has been approved? Sometimes they can be shifted from other items in the departmental budget. Sometimes a supplementary request must be passed up to the next higher budgetary authority. Of course, there will often be many situations in which the limitations of faculty, facilities, and the budget generally will mean that the additional students cannot be accommodated.

The function of control in the budget is a matter of common sense. As the projected plan for education changes, a review is needed to see how the available finances will be used to achieve the changed plan. Most schools operate on a fixed dollar budget. An increase in additional students seldom produces additional operating dollars. Increases in expenditures in one area require decreases in expenditures in another area.

A second feature of the control function is the collection of information as a basis for future budget planning. This requires a certain amount of recordkeeping which likely will be time consuming. However, the situation can be helped by keeping major or bulk records of consumption which will later be reduced to a per-student basis. However, even this will be difficult when similar supplies and materials are used in several areas throughout the department.

For example, one teacher has been assigned classes in both bookkeeping and general business. How much of the supplies used by this teacher should be listed for bookkeeping and how much for general business? Only approximations can be achieved in many cases; but, rough estimates are better than no estimates at all.

LIMITATIONS IN BUDGET PLANNING

The budget is an estimate of the relatively unknown. Budgets most often must be estimated well in advance. Fortunate is the business department head who finds no unexpected changes in student enrollments, machine repairs, paper consumption, or other unpredictable items that affect the budget.

Budgets are planned in absolutes (dollars and cents) which do have a way of changing: Prices change, income (tax or tuition revenues) is not as high as anticipated, or the best of estimates based on the information available may become unrealistic when the educational plan is put into operation. Experience with budgets goes a long way in making the estimates more realistic.

A budget will not operate itself. There is a need for wise men to consider, plan, and replan, if the very best budgets are to be operational in terms of the major educational purposes for which they are devised.

A budget is an estimate of educational objectives expressed in dollars and cents. The preparation of a budget is based on information about costs of previous performance. A systematic method of converting the educational objectives into projected plans must be followed if the result is a proposal which can be defended. Once a budget has been approved, some method must be devised to control the operation of the budget so that the educational objectives can be achieved and information collected for planning future budgets.

CHAPTER 21

Discovering and Utilizing Community Resources

F. Wayne House

Attempting to provide a close relationship between the schools and the local community has always been a major consideration in our educational program. This is especially true of business education in the secondary schools.

In all secondary schools—small, medium, and large—teachers can make effective use of a large number of community resources. The variety of these resources varies from community to community depending upon factors such as size, location, and type of industry. Business teachers should make definite plans for discovering and utilizing these resources.

DISCOVERING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

One of the first things to be considered in preparing for a study of community resources is clarity of purpose. What do we wish to achieve through the use of these resources? How will their use enrich the instructional materials in the various courses? Obviously, the purposes and values to be achieved may and probably should be modified throughout the process of using these resources. Nevertheless, clarity of purpose is important.

In any community there are many problem areas focusing attention on some phase of community life. Not all of these areas would fit logically into the content materials of all the business courses in the secondary school. However, some of them could be chosen that would be appropriate to any one of the business courses. The following problem areas are related to the students' daily lives although not all of these areas will be found in the same community:

1. *Means of Communication:* telephone, postal service, telegraph, radio, movies, newspapers, magazines, railroads, airplanes and boats

2. *Natural Resources:* soil, gravel, sand, petroleum, coal, gas, minerals, water power, timber, and sea foods

3. *Homes in the Community:* family membership, housing of the family, family ideals and standards, racial background, participation in community life, and cultural background

4. *Community Organizations:* church groups, Grange, Farm Bureau, cooperative marketing groups, 4-H Clubs, Future Farmers of America, Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Future Business Leaders of America, fraternal organizations, and parent-teacher organizations

5. *Welfare Agencies:* Red Cross, service clubs, safety councils, humane society, health societies, and the like

6. *Professional Services:* doctors, dentists, nurses, ministers, teachers, lawyers, merchants, bankers, musicians, community leaders, and welfare workers

7. *Local Government:* functions, elections, town meetings, tax assessing, licenses, buildings, road building, highway patrol, utilities, conservation and agricultural extension

8. *Nature Study:* animals, insects, birds, plants, land contours, topography, weather, stars, planets and climate

9. *Farming:* crops raised, disposal of farm products, ownership, management, equipment, and machinery

10. *Farm Service Occupations:* creameries, grain mills, elevators, hatcheries, canneries, meat packing plants, dairy processing plants, farm machine factories, and blacksmiths

11. *Cultural Heritage:* languages spoken, books and literature, architecture, landscaping, art, and music

12. *Other Occupational Activities:* manufacturing, mining, lumbering, fishing, transportational services, buying, selling, insurance, banking, laundry, bakery, as examples.

UTILIZING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

If the business teacher firmly believes in using the community to supplement the classroom experiences in the business courses, there are a number of ways in which this can be accomplished:

Using the Community Library. In addition to the school library, the community library is a valuable resource. The trained librarians in these libraries will assist the students in locating the sources of information they need. Initially, most students need instruction in locating information. They need help in the use of library tools that are available. Some of these tools are: encyclopedias, dictionaries, atlases, maps, biographical dictionaries, yearbooks, indexes, card catalogs, documents, readers' guides, and newspapers.

Visiting Local Business Firms. Field trips to various business firms provide excellent opportunities for students to observe and analyze business activities "on the spot." Regardless of whether the students are in beginning or advanced business courses, they are highly interested in observing how business offices actually operate in their communities.

The visits to local business firms can be used as an excellent opportunity for pointing out vocational requirements and employment possibilities. During these visits, students have a chance to see for themselves the importance of having a thorough knowledge of business procedures as well as the importance of having salable skills.

If students are to derive the maximum values from an educational trip to a business concern, the teacher and students should plan the trip, carry it out, capitalize on the experiences gained, and report the outcomes.

Use Guest Speakers. Guest speakers can be used as another means for providing students with an opportunity of learning how business operates. Local businessmen are usually cooperative when invited into the classroom to discuss their problems concerning business practices and procedures.

Recent high school graduates holding office positions can be invited into the classroom to report and discuss their experiences. They can discuss and explain the forms and procedures used by their firms, the basic problems involved in their work, and the numbers and kind of employees that are participating in the various office activities.

Public accountants and other business consultants are excellent sources for guest speakers for the business classes. Their experiences will include a wide variety of business practices in the local community.

If the Department of Internal Revenue maintains an office in your community, an official will be glad to come to your school. He will discuss and illustrate the preparation and filing of individual tax returns, or he may be asked to discuss the problems encountered by business firms in the recording and reporting of tax information.

Have Students Interview Businessmen. Interviews by a committee of two or three students can be used when field trips by the entire class cannot be arranged. Most businessmen are pleased to have a small committee of students come to interview them. The committee should be prepared to ask specific questions which they wish to have answered. For example, such questions as the following might be asked:

1. What types of equipment, or machines, are used in the office?
2. Are graduates just out of high school employed in the firm? If so, what training is desirable?
3. Do the stenographers and secretaries use transcribing machines, or do they transcribe from shorthand notes?
4. What employment opportunities are available for high school graduates as typists, stenographers, clerks, bookkeepers, and sales persons?
5. What kind of bookkeeping system is used?
6. What reports are made daily, weekly, monthly, and yearly?
7. What records are kept for tax purposes?
8. What emphasis is given to personality and character traits in employing new personnel?

After the committee has conducted the interview, it should prepare and present a detailed report to the class. All pertinent, illustrative materials that the committee collected during the interview should be presented to the class for examination and discussion. If possible, these illustrative materials should be displayed on the bulletin board following the report by the committee.

Many business forms can be collected in these interviews with the local businessmen. Sample forms including sales slips, invoices, checks, purchase orders, statements, letters, reports, tax forms, and the like can be obtained. These forms can be examined and studied in class as well as displayed on the bulletin board.

Many business teachers maintain an extensive file of business forms that are used in the local community. As each new topic is introduced and studied in class, the collection of forms for that topic is examined, discussed, and displayed on the bulletin board. The opaque projector, which most high schools possess, is particularly advantageous in displaying these forms for discussion.

Participate in Service Projects. Service projects are activities in which business classes might participate as a contribution to school or community welfare. Needless to say, this type of activity can be projected far beyond its usefulness as a learning activity for business classes. The teacher must use good judgment in deciding whether a project will provide learning activities for the class or whether it will merely provide a service for some school or community organization.

Organize a Work-Experience Program. Much has been written concerning the advantages and disadvantages of work-experience programs. However, most business teachers would agree that a well coordinated work-experience program for advanced business students is an excellent way to use the business community to supplement and enrich classroom laboratory experiences. In many instances, even though a formally organized work experience program is not in operation, a large number of the advanced business students will be working part time for a business concern. Their experiences on the job can be coordinated to good advantage with the regular classroom laboratory activities.

The opportunity for using community resources in business classes is present in both the large and the small high school. If the business teacher firmly believes in using the business community to supplement the laboratory experiences in the business classes, the following are some of the ways in which this can be accomplished: using the community library, visiting local business firms, having students interview businessmen, collecting business forms from local firms, using guest speakers, participating in service projects, conducting surveys concerning employment possibilities, and organizing a work experience program.

CHAPTER 22

Encouraging Professional Growth

Milton C. Olson

The truly professional business teacher is never satisfied with the status quo. He recognizes that perfection in his teaching is an ideal never completely attained. He also knows that he is teaching in a dynamic society; he must be alert to many different types of changes.

At the same time, business teachers as well as other teachers often become overwhelmed with the amount and variety of work they must do. As a result, the shortcuts are earnestly sought and used—examinations are administered over and over again without change, textbooks are followed chapter by chapter, and lessons are taught the same way term after term. All of this tends to make the teacher lose interest in teaching as a profession and in growing as a professional person.

There are many methods by which a supervisor can encourage his business teachers to grow professionally. It is, perhaps, most important to provide the climate and environment in which this growth can take place. Growth itself must take place within the teacher; it cannot be imposed by an outsider. A seed needs good soil and favorable climate if it is to grow properly and achieve maturity. So it is with the business teacher—he will grow professionally when the proper environment is provided.

THE PROFESSIONAL ENVIRONMENT AND CLIMATE

A number of factors are instrumental in providing favorable environment and climate for growth. The example set by a supervisor who is actively interested in growing professionally and participating in those activities that promote growth such as attending professional conventions is a potent factor. The freedom, with responsibility for achievement, given to the teacher challenges him to grow and measure up. Words of encouragement and recognition given freely and openly have beneficial effects.

The truly democratic atmosphere, in which the teacher knows he has an important part in decision making in the areas of his professional competence, promotes the desire for professional growth. Acting democratically certainly does not mean that every decision is arrived at by majority vote. It does mean that opinions from competent people are sought when a decision affecting the policies of the business department are concerned. These competent people would generally include the business teachers who will be affected by the decision. The decision itself may be made by the supervisor or department chairman. If the teachers believe that their opinions are considered valuable, even though it may prove necessary to do something contrary to their wishes, their striving for professional excellence need not be inhibited. The rapport the supervisor is able to develop with his staff is all important in providing the proper climate for professional growth.

Having to teach five classes of beginning typewriting, or any other subject, one right after the other, might not be conducive to professional growth. The mass of papers the teacher feels obliged to examine and the skill building procedures he repeats over and over again may dull the drive toward professional excellence he otherwise might have. On the other hand, the assignment of five different classes may be just as frustrating, in that the energies dissipated in preparing five different lessons each day leave little for the professional enjoyment of teaching, which tends to dull and deaden.

Teaching two or possibly three different subjects a day provides needed variety without making for unreasonable preparations. It might be well to have one of these subjects different from any taught during the previous year. The teacher will then be more alert.

PROFESSIONAL READING AND WRITING

In our rapidly changing society it is imperative that the business teacher be aware of the changes that are occurring in the economy, in business, and in education. Reading professional and other materials consistently is the only way a teacher can hope to keep up with current developments. Reading materials of several types must be considered in a reading program designed to keep a teacher current.

Daily newspapers containing coverage of business events and financial affairs are helpful; newspapers such as the *New York Times* and the *Wall Street Journal* are excellent in their coverage of business developments. Weekly periodicals such as *Time* and *Newsweek* provide business information of a somewhat different nature. *Business Week* has information for the business teacher who is struggling to keep up to date on what is happening in business.

In business education, several professional publications should be on a business teacher's required list of reading. These include *Business Education Forum, Business Education World, Journal of Business Education, The National Business Education Quarterly,* yearbooks, and special publications of professional associations such as the National Business Education Association (formerly the United Business Education Association) should be read. House organs such as *The Balance Sheet* and the *Business Teacher* are also helpful. There are also publications too numerous to mention here in each of the subject areas in business education and in general professional education about which the business teacher should know.

Obviously, all of these publications cannot be studied completely; few are worth thorough study. They should be available, however, so that the business teacher can skim through them, pausing to read and study more thoroughly those items that warrant such study.

The supervisor or department head can be of assistance in several ways. He can, for example, be sure that materials are available for reading in the library or, preferably, in the departmental office or study. He must set a good example himself in using these reading materials. He is then in a position to circulate materials with articles marked for suggested reading and for raising questions for discussion with staff members about proposals made in current materials. It should be understood, however, that materials in the library will never take the place of certain reading materials each teacher should receive regularly through personal subscription or membership in professional organizations.

The business teacher who grows professionally through reading and other activities will find himself in a position to grow even more by contributing to the professional literature. A letter to the editor in response to an article, either in agreement or in disagreement, is one way of getting started. The judicious use of the *Business Education Index* will be helpful in checking what has already been written on a topic of interest. The investigating, the analysis, and the writing, whether the material is published or not, will contribute substantially to the teacher's professional growth. By example and by freely given encouragement, the supervisor, when he knows that one of his teachers has something to contribute to the professional literature, can provide the motivation needed to get the job done.

DEPARTMENTAL MEETINGS

Where there are a minimum of three or four business teachers in a school or in a school system, regularly scheduled departmental meetings can be instrumental in promoting professional growth. To accomplish this, the meetings must be planned with the purpose of growth, or they can easily degenerate into "gripe" sessions or discussions of topics that could more easily be handled in some other manner.

Particular departmental problems and policies should be discussed, of course, but if all the meetings are devoted to special problems within the school without reference to what is happening in business and in education in general, little growth may take place. A few suggestions for departmental meetings follow.

A topic, selected and announced in advance, may be the major concern of a particular meeting. Automation and its possible effect on the curriculum of the school might be such a topic. If one of the teachers has attended a convention where this topic was discussed (and it is being discussed at most conventions), he could be asked to share what he has learned. Another teacher might have checked recent publications for additional ideas. The discussion might well lead to a decision that further investigation should be made before consideration of the specific effects of automation on the curriculum are determined. Here is a time for sharing information, for growing professionally, and for determining additional needed activities. It may be that businessmen involved in working with automated office procedures should be consulted to indicate the latest developments in their offices. Out of all of this should come a desire for a better knowledge of business and the role of the business teacher in preparing workers. Other pertinent topics include the suitability and role of abbreviated longhand systems, personal-use typewriting, economic education, and work-experience programs.

PREPARATION OF COURSES OF STUDY

The careful preparation or revision of a course of study by a teacher or group of teachers can be a stimulating, growth-provoking experience. In this process the objectives of the course should be determined first. To do this, it is important to know what students will be enrolled in the course, their age and ability levels, their aspirations, and their particular interests. A course in consumer economics for the college-bound young person should be somewhat different from the course in which only terminal students are enrolled.

Once the general objectives have been determined, it is possible to select topics for study that will contribute most to these objectives. The first step in this process might be to list each possible topic on a separate card. Then, by examination of the materials available and by discussion with other teachers and with students, it would be possible to arrange the topics for study in an order that will aid effective teaching. In this process, some elimination will take place, and other topics will come to mind.

The arrangement of topics to be taught might be in the order of difficulty or in the order of student interests. Teaching methods and supplementary materials should also become part of this project. If ingenuity and imagination are used in the development of materials and methods, professional growth is inevitable. It goes almost without saying that the course of study should be used experimentally if growth is to continue.

The chief temptation in preparing any course of study is to rely too heavily on a particular textbook for the topics to be taught, with little or no reference to special objectives which might be entirely appropriate. No textbook can anticipate all the particular objectives for which any particular course is taught. Textbooks can be very helpful and should be used in setting up a course of study, but they must not be slavishly followed. After the course of study has been determined, at least in general form, textbook selection can also be used as a means of stimulating growth.

The process of evaluating and selecting textbooks can stimulate professional growth if the procedures are designed and used properly. In the first place, if more than one teacher is involved in the teaching of the particular course, the selection should be a cooperative venture.

Representatives of publishing companies and advertising materials can be most helpful in determining which textbooks might be appropriate for the course. After acquiring copies of textbooks from the various publishing companies, a consideration of each with the general objectives of the course in mind will probably make it possible to eliminate all but a relatively few books. The remaining books should then be compared with at least some of the following standards in mind:

1. Which textbook will best help the teacher and students attain the objectives of the course? The arrangement and presentation of topics, the format, and the size of type used may have a bearing here.

2. Are the topics handled accurately and as completely as is desirable for this course? A judgment as to accuracy can be made by the teacher who knows the field and, partially, on the basis of the reputations of the authors and publishing company. Is the book up to date? is a closely related question. Edition dates will be helpful here, although it might also be well to check the date of the first edition of the book.

3. Is the reading level appropriate to the students who will be using the textbook? It is easy for a teacher to misjudge the reading level of his students. There are pseudoscientific methods involving syllabic count and vocabulary difficulty that could be used here. A more practical method for many is to have students render a judgment. Two students from the upper-ability levels, two from the middle of the range of ability, and two from the lower parts of the range might be asked to read about a topic in several textbooks and to give an opinion as to which of the several treatments seems most understandable and stimulating.

4. What is the nature and extent of suggested questions, problems, and methods of using the book? Are helpful teaching materials provided by the publisher? The busy teacher of five or six classes a day needs and appreciates such help.

MEMBERSHIP IN PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The business teacher has not reached a truly professional level until he recognizes the need for belonging to, and participating in, professional organizations. Just as in the practice of medicine and other professions, it becomes necessary to share concerns, problems, and their possible solutions; to promote research and leadership; and to take joint action where individual action would not be as effective. Professional progress comes about through organizations of interested, dedicated business teachers who not only join professional organizations but also become active in them.

What can the supervisor do to promote membership in these organizations? The first step is to set a good example by joining and becoming active himself. Local, state, regional, and national organizations of business teachers have legitimate places in the sun of professional organizations. Where these organizations are affiliated in some ways, the responsibilities of each become clearer. A second step is one of education. Staff members should learn about the various organizations of business teachers—not only that they exist, but what is being done by each. A third step involves encouraging participation and membership. The supervisor can be instrumental in getting staff members appointed to committees of the local organization and in encouraging them to speak up in local meetings. The mark of the true professional is participation. The attendance and participation in state, regional, and national meetings should be encouraged. Financial assistance by the local school administration should be actively sought when budgets are being considered; complete reimbursement of expenses may not be desirable, or necessary, when the teacher recognizes the need for professional activity.

If a merit system is being used in determining teachers' salaries, membership and participation in professional organizations should be a factor in determining the degree of merit. Proper publicity for those participating in various types of meetings and those contributing to professional publications is also effective.

Providing the opportunities in departmental meetings for reporting on topics discussed at professional meetings can be a means of getting faculty members interested in professional growth. The materials published by professional organizations can also be the basis for promoting interest and participation. The enthusiastic, professional supervisor is the real key to progress.

PROMOTING RESEARCH

A business teacher who becomes interested in investigating a professional problem grows professionally in the process. Everything possible should be done to encourage him in such investigations. The problem of determining what courses are to be offered and what topics are to be taught within these courses is a continuing problem that should be investigated. Two types of studies are suggested to meet this problem. A follow-up of graduates can help determine the effectiveness of present offerings and deficiencies within the offerings. A community survey can assist in determining what employment needs are and what is expected of beginning workers.

Teachers appreciate the results of studies of these types much better when they are actively involved than when someone else conducts the study for them. They are more willing to accept the results and to modify their courses accordingly. The very process of conducting or participating in the study promotes growth. Ideally, follow-up studies should be conducted each year; under any conditions, they should be made at least once during each school generation—this is once every three or four years for a high school.

There are many other types of studies that can be effectively undertaken by classroom teachers. Handling courses on an experimental basis with proper evaluations made of achievements, for example, should be a challenge to any business teacher.

If a business department is to be alive and dynamic, it is essential that the teachers grow professionally. When growth ceases, progress stops, and static teaching becomes unrealistic in a dynamic society. The supervisor can do much to stimulate this growth. He can, for example, promote an environment and climate conducive to progress. He can make teaching assignments in such a way as to encourage growth. He can encourage professional reading and writing. Departmental meetings can be designed for intellectual stimulation. The preparation of courses of study and selection of textbooks can be a means of inspiring professional growth, as can the promotion of teacher research. Finally, the supervisor, by example and precept, can help his teachers grow to true professional status by joining and becoming active in professional organizations.

CHAPTER 23

Guidance in Business Education

F. Kendrick Bangs

Possibly the most dominant characteristic of the American Economic and business scene in the past two decades has been change. The student of business conditions recognizes that the business scene is not static but one that is dynamic and ever-changing—one which he must appraise carefully if he is to know what is going on around him.

What are some of the outstanding changes which have taken place in the past 10 or more years that have influenced business activity and in turn have had a direct relationship with guidance of young people into a vocation? First, we know there is a rapidly increasing population. The population explosion is a reality to those directly associated with education. The school population grows more and more each year. Have we taken this fact into account as we counsel our students about the future vocations they will select? As these young people mature, they will begin families of their own—this in turn sets into motion the need for more housing, furniture, recreational opportunities, services, and needs yet unknown. The competitive free-enterprise system of this country will open vistas of employment for these young people; they should be prepared to make choices which will help them to be happy, responsible business citizens through the productive years of their lives.

Along with the increased population in our country there is an increasing mobility of population. This mobility has two forms. One is a geographical mobility of people—people moving from one geographical location to another in search of better opportunities and better living conditions. With this willingness, almost eagerness, to move (census figures reveal that on the average during the past few years there have been about 30,000,000 people changing addresses annually), the vocational guidance counselor should remember that the American philosophy of deep home roots is gradually giving way to the philosophy of mobility. This will affect the attitude of young people in seeking life employment. As mechanization and automation of jobs increase displacement of personnel, young people will be more willing to enter the retraining programs and move to areas where opportunities are greater. Similarly, there has been a mobility of people moving rapidly upward in earning capacity. A larger percentage of our population is moving from the lower income brackets into the middle income brackets. In fact, there has been an average of about 2,500,000 consumer spending units moving into the $4,000 a year and above bracket during each of the years in the past decade. This has doubled the number of families and the disposable income of those families, thus raising the economic level of our country and making job opportunities more plentiful because of the increased spending power of this phase of the American economy.

The increased disposable income of our population has brought with it a higher standard of living. A change in business conditions, then, has brought about an increased capacity to consume. As we develop a larger segment of our population who consume more and more, we open avenues of employment for young people to create goods to satisfy the wants for the increased number of consumers as well as the increased desires and wants of the consumers.

Likewise, through technological advances, improved skills, and more scientific management, we have increased productivity. Our production of goods and services over the past 10 years has increased probably three times the rate of increase in our available labor force. This is an indication that business is making more and better use of its know-how and that the opportunities will be extensive in the years to come for young people with management ability, vision, decision-making ability, and analytical ability.

These indications of just a few of the major changes which have occurred in the past decade will suffice to emphasize that business is dynamic and ever-changing, and that guidance of young people into this world of business must keep pace if it is to satisfy its purpose in vocational guidance.

A great deal of emphasis is placed currently at the junior and senior high school level on the academic area. Counselors and others are encouraging young people to compete for grades so that they will be admitted to college upon graduation from high school. We hear secondary school administrators boast that 65 per cent, 75 per cent, or 85 per cent of their graduates go to college. Are these figures real? Or are these administrators wanting this to be true and are they, as the ostrich with his head in the sand, not facing reality? If we had figures of the percentage of those students who went to college and those who graduated, would we not be shocked into the reality that a large percentage of these high school students who were considered college material really are not? Along with the academic guidance, which is most important today in our high schools, there must be equal emphasis on vocational guidance.

THE NEED FOR VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

As adults we spend from one-fourth to one-half of our waking hours in our occupational role. Most of the working public derives a great portion of its sense of self-worth and identity from how well each individual performs on the job. The choice of a position generally determines the people with whom the individual will associate and also the way he will be evaluated by his fellowmen. A man's occupation determines his social status, his place of living, his style and manner of living, his dress, his hours of work, his avocations. There is a psychological satisfaction in working to support oneself and one's family. Work provides security to the individual. In fact, work has an immense influence on the whole life of the individual. Work exerts an effort to facilitate individual development and to promote individual happiness in a world that more and more emphasizes the corporate and the social.

There are many factors that affect the vocational choices of individuals. Some factors which often influence the occupational choice of a person are parental occupations and pressure, socio-economic factors, and limited opportunities in the local community. However, more and more the individual is given a freedom of choice in selecting a vocation. And since there is a matter of choice in vocations, the need for good vocational guidance becomes not only apparent but essential.

Vocational counseling is more than the matching of aptitudes, abilities, and interests with job demands and job requirements. A definition often used by persons doing vocational counseling is that counseling is assisting the person to develop an understanding of himself and of his environment, and to integrate the two to enable him to resolve problems, make choices, and develop and carry out plans. This is a type of counseling which is information-giving. This is not a complete definition. Vocational guidance requires more than the use and interpretation of tests and the providing of occupational information.

More realistically "vocational guidance is the process of helping a person to develop and accept an integrated and adequate picture of himself and of his role in the world of work, to test this concept against reality, and to convert it into reality, with satisfaction to himself and benefit to society."[1] An acceptance of this definition indicates that in order to do an effective job of vocational guidance the counselor must have a good understanding of the personal adjustment of the individual. Combining these understandings with an understanding of the tools, techniques, and resources of vocational guidance will develop a guidance procedure which will be rewarding to the individual counseled.

Making an occupational choice is a complex matter. Making the choice is a process which must begin in the elementary school. All through the elementary school, instruction should include what workers do and the conditions under which they work. At the junior high school level, the vocational implications of the materials covered in the areas of science, music, art, crafts, and, yes, business should be a part of each course. Then at the senior high school level, educational and vocational guidance become almost synonymous as this will be the end of the formal education for most of the students. Vocational development is a part of general development, vocational problems are involved with the personality, and one's self-concept is important in occupational choice and adjustment as in other areas of life. If the counselor is to do a good job of vocational counseling, he must be more than what he has been narrowly defined as being in the past.

Today, not tomorrow, the business teacher must become a team member in the guidance program. The able students must be encouraged to consider business and do so with as much enthusiasm and anticipation as the students who select careers in science and mathematics.

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[1] Super, D. E. *The Psychology of Careers.* New York: Harper, 1957. p. 197.

GUIDANCE FOR WHAT KIND OF BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT

Business as we know it today differs immeasurably from the concept of business even a generation ago. The business we know is new—only about 50 years old. Only recently has business been looked upon without skepticism as a full-fledged social institution; the idea of *caveat emptor* is not too long a thing of the past. Could the newness of business be one of the reasons we have had poor counseling for business? Could the rapid changes which are taking place in our business activities cause the counseling to be poor because counselors cannot keep up with the myriad of changes? Could the reason be that business teachers are prepared primarily for and interested in only skill development?

Today, the designated high school counselor can keep abreast of only broad employment trends. The vast number of recognized occupations are increasing at a rate of 500 to 1000 new ones a year. This makes it impossible to know the current job specifics. The counselor and student alike can be concerned only with the distinctive trends within the working scene and wha these trends suggest for the future.

Some of these trends have been mentioned many times and in many ways namely, this is to be a land of more people where women will outnumber men and where there will be increasing numbers of children and of senior citizens too. These people will be characterized by a gypsy-like mobility. They wil move from one corner of the nation to another, from farms to metropolitan areas, from cities to suburbs. Mobility will extend into leisure time. Automation will play a part in nearly all daily tasks. It will have the effect of upgrading the skills of labor and therefore the status of labor. In order to accommodate the millions of persons in the working force, work time will b shorter—executives and managers will work longer hours than laborers because decision-making will be a more demanding process. The opportunitie in business will increase.

Today all the academic disciplines are vying for the able students. Th teachers in science are encouraging the able students to consider careers i science and the teachers of mathematics are urging able students to look toward careers in the mathematical field; these fields and others have bee glamorized as a result of the scientific spurt for world supremacy. Th would-be space explorer of only 10 years ago was exercising his juvenil fantasy. Today he is considering an occupation which was unknown to th world them. These types of opportunities have made the fields of scienc and mathematics eye-catching for the young people in search of an occupation. We have failed in business to show the excitement in business occupations, to see the horizons available through business.

THE PLACE OF A BUSINESS TEACHER IN A VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE PROGRAM

Today students are educated for jobs that do not exist and for profession that cannot be described. Even some of the up-to-date things that are taugh today will become obsolete in five years. If we were asked today to recom mend an occupation that will not change much over the next 20 years, we would find it difficult to give an answer except, perhaps, that of a barber. We surely will continue to get haircuts and possibly in much the same manner as today.

To counsel for occupations which are not now in existence, we must expand the type of vocational guidance we have done in the past. Some of the things which we have been doing need to be continued, but much of our emphasis will change along with the changing occupations. We will not be able to counsel for specific jobs but for understanding and appreciation of business as a social institution.

An assumption in vocational guidance which used to be prevalent was that individuals have more or less fixed abilities and that occupations have definite requirements. This is certainly not our belief in guidance today. The guidance procedures used in schools currently are generally based on these concepts:

1. A person can be trained for many occupations. . . . The normal person can fit into several, and possibly many, occupations equally well.
2. Nevertheless, individuals do have differences in original capacity and in developed interests. These should be taken into account in the selection of a vocation.
3. There is, moreover, an increasing specialization in all occupational life that makes it even more important than in previous periods to choose an occupation wisely, not only in the limited area of specialization but also in the general area of occupational interest.
4. It is taking longer to prepare for most occupations than it did in periods of less occupational specialization. Most of this preparation is, however, of a general nature rather than aimed at a specific occupation. . . .
5. Admission to certain forms of occupational life is becoming increasingly difficult because of union restrictions, license requirements, and similar hurdles.
6. The school is, therefore, in a unique position to help the prospective worker make a wise occupational choice.
7. Guidance should not be arbitrary, dogmatic, or imposed. It should be advisory and must aim to develop increasingly the person's ability to achieve self-guidance.[2]

Based upon these concepts, the type of vocational guidance in high schools has been to give the student a series of tests so that counselors would know his special abilities and limitations. Likewise, the guidance teachers acquired a library of job descriptions including the requirements of the jobs so far as characteristics required to perform the job. Guidance classes have tended to give this job information to the student without trying to fit the characteristics and interests of the individual to the characteristics of the job. Guidance has generally ended at this point. Actually this is the beginning.

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[2] Tonne, Herbert A. *Principles of Business Education.* Third edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1961. p. 142.

The mechanics of the vocational guidance program generally have been taken care of in most school systems. At this point the program usually stagnates. However, with an interested business teacher entering the picture at this point, the vocational guidance program can help young people understand the world of business and how they may become a vital part of that world.

Statistics show that only 5 of every 100 high school students now take a course which will help them understand business and how business operates, the problems of management and labor, how business serves the community, what part they as individuals play in our economic society, and how they can successfully manage their own financial affairs. A thorough knowledge and an understanding of our business system are essential to the continued well-being of American citizens and to the improvement of the American enterprise system.[3]

The business teacher is the one in the secondary school system who can contribute to this area which is so vital in our guidance of young people today in preparation for fruitful, prosperous life in a country that has a free-enterprise economic system. The business teacher, therefore, can become a team member with the school guidance personnel in bringing a much neglected area of information to the students.

We as business teachers have been so concerned with equipping our students with marketable skills which would enable them to earn a living that we may have failed to prepare them for the job of living in our business society. An important phase of vocational guidance is to help the student find his niche in the work-a-day world.

The business teacher has a responsibility to stimulate an interest in the understanding of local businesses and to appreciate the problems and contributions made by those organizations. The young people of today need to understand that we have become a great nation largely because of our system of business enterprise, that to make a profit in business is the only way that success in business can be measured, that the future success of our free-enterprise system depends upon the calibre of the young people who enter business. All fields are vying for the able student, and if we are to have the able students enter business and plan to be our future managers, we must make business attractive to these able young people. The business teacher must take an active part in counseling in order to achieve this.

It is essential that teachers and counselors encourage the able students to see that business can be exciting. Students should be taught about the many opportunities in business. The able students should be stimulated by showing them the many successes which lie ahead on the horizon for those who select business. This is the task of the business teacher who will become a member of the vocational guidance team.

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[3] Bahr, Gladys, and others. *Let's Educate Youth for Effective Business Life.* Monograph 98. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1958.

CHAPTER 24

Developing Syllabi and Course Content in Business Education

John L. Rowe

Business education subject matter is neither static nor parochial. Its content reflects the struggle for survival in the competitive free enterprise society in which we live. The profit motive makes little provision for the status quo—"the kiss of death" to business and to business education.

Ever-changing social and economic forces, affecting the affluent society, present new challenges as to what should be taught in the basic business subjects. Electronics have accelerated the world's business and is creating a near revolution in our vocational business education classrooms. The profit motive creates a demand for greater efficiency, and more highly trained and adaptable talent will be essential if we are to increase the gross national income. These factors, therefore, also directly affect what we do in business education.

As business educators, we cannot afford to stand still. Like the Queen in *Through the Looking Glass,* ". . . it takes all the running *you* can do, to keep in the same place. If you want to get somewhere else, you must run at least twice as fast as that." To meet our ever-changing needs in business education, it will be necessary to do some "fast running" to be in step with the accelerating and changing demands in our business society.

The development and periodic revision of courses of study or syllabi is a first step toward improvement of instruction. Taking inventory of what we are currently doing and should be doing will, if approached correctly, provide the impetus to meet the needs of business education for today's living and for business in society. Periodic construction of courses of study and syllabi will do much to establish up-to-date course content and current teaching methodology.

This contribution is concerned with administrative considerations in the preparation of syllabi and courses of study.

ADMINISTRATIVE CONSIDERATIONS IN DETERMINING COURSE CONTENT

Demonstrate a Need. An administrator when deciding that syllabi and course content should be developed or revised should sell the proposal to all concerned. He should have the backing of his immediate superiors so that a state of approval exists from above, but just as important is it necessary to have all teachers in the department, the working force, "sold" on the project. An enthusiastic team is needed to insure the completion of the project and to implement its operation. The major objective, therefore, for the administrator is to "sell" the project so that the entire staff will work together in developing it.

Selling the project involves evidence of a demonstrated need. This can be done by presenting data from professional literature, by outside consultants, from community groups and businessmen, and from surveys. An administrator, particularly if he has come up through the ranks, may not always be considered an authority in his own community and, therefore, will need to use his talents by presenting the opinions of others concerning new developments. Use every available strategy to show real needs rather than those that might reflect personal or vested interests.

Employ Democratic Procedures in Determining Course Content. The administrator should employ democratic procedures in attaining desired objectives. We would all agree that this has become standard and accepted practice. It is quite possible that many administrators could well develop, because of specialized competencies, syllabi and course outlines entirely on their own; but in so doing, they would have to realize, and implement, the objectives of the project alone and this is almost impossible to achieve.

All school personnel who are in any way connected with the project should have an opportunity to be heard and to have their suggestions considered. To illustrate this situation, let us assume we are preparing a course of study in vocational typewriting. The city supervisor of business education believes, because of recent developments and pressures, that a new course outline is urgently needed. The following would constitute a partial list of those who should be included in actuating the course of study: department heads in the various schools offering vocational typewriting; typewriting teachers (both personal use and vocational); representative teachers of other business subjects; representatives from the guidance, placement, business, and employment agencies; and someone representing the principals. All these individuals should have an opportunity to contribute, some to a greater extent than others. The chief administrator, the superintendent, should be informed of the project; and it should have his blessing. If all these interested parties understand that the goal of the project is improvement of instruction, cooperation in developing the course of study, and its resultant implementation, is apt to be realized.

All will not necessarily contribute equally because of varying interests and capabilities, but they should be informed and have an opportunity to be heard.

Use Specialists and Experts. Democratic participation does not preclude the role of an expert. In fact, the expert and specialist play an important part in democratic administration. There will be some specialists in your own school system, and these should be used to every advantage. But bring in the outside experts also. They will offer new and refreshing ideas. If textbook authors are consulted, try to get them from more than one publishing house; the same is also true for office appliance representatives.

Inbreeding is sometimes prevalent in many school systems, particularly the larger ones; frequently an overwhelming majority of teachers may be prepared at one teacher training institution and reflect only the opinions of this institution—beliefs that may be outdated or open to question. Consultatory service from the outside may assist in this situation.

Presenting opinions of the experts does not imply that they need to be personally present at your group meetings (although in very large cities this may be possible); have them present their views, in form of letters, by supplying documentary evidence in written form. In many instances this method is to be preferred to that of making a special trip.

Contact Businessmen and Laymen. If the course of study is in vocational typewriting, certainly businessmen who employ our graduates should be consulted. Patterns of vocational typewriting are changing, but who knows it better than the office manager or other office personnel. If the course of study is in personal typewriting, perhaps laymen (those who have taken personal typewriting) might offer worthwhile suggestions on how we can improve upon the present course content.

The suggestions and ideas supplied by all those really concerned with the outcome will prove of great value, and perhaps equally important is the fact that these very same persons will also be your most effective salesmen in realizing final utilization of the course of study.

Review the Literature. There are many excellent ideas and suggestions obtainable from the literature in business education. Many of the articles constitute success stories of what has been done in other places. Although each community is different (in ever so many ways) there may be elements, sufficiently common, that could be adapted to a local situation. In perusing the literature, caution must be exercised in the selection of workable content and ideas because some articles represent vested interests; also the results of some experiments may be the result of a motivation to succeed, and the typical teacher might not obtain the same results. As the syllabus project develops, it is imperative that all recent articles on the subject be read and evaluated, and selective criteria for the usable be employed.

We can surely learn from others. Obtain courses of study from other school systems. This is known as the "paste-pot and scissors" method of developing syllabi. Be especially careful to observe that local conditions, where these courses of study were developed, may have affected the course content of the syllabus. Other syllabi serve chiefly as a guide. They may contain abundant bibliographies, suggested teaching media, and co-curricular activities to enrich your own syllabus. Be the developer, the creator, not the copier.

Consult the textbooks appropriate to the subject. Frequently elaborate objectives, and well stated, appear in the teachers manuals and in the textbooks. Most textbooks are published to sell on a national basis. Publishing companies employ some staff members whose chief assignment may be to ascertain the current needs of schools and teachers. They may have already done much of the work for your proposed syllabi. These specialists are aware of the curriculum pulse. Adaptations may be necessary because many textbooks are designed to be all things to all people and, as a result, may not serve any one school system entirely. A wealth of information is available from publishing houses.

Attend Conventions. New curriculum developments are sometimes first aired at conventions. The writer first learned about Notehand, team-teaching, EDL skill builders, machine shorthand, to name but a few, at conventions. Course content was freely and liberally presented. Not only should the administrator attend; but if he wants to implement these new findings into his curriculum, he should have his key teachers attend conventions also.

WHAT TO INCLUDE IN SYLLABI AND COURSE CONTENT

Is the subject matter valid for the course being taught? Is it available in other courses or at other levels of instruction? Is there a demonstrated need? These are some of the pertinent questions to be considered when ascertaining specific elements of subject matter to be included in the syllabi. These issues can be illustrated by application to a specific course of study project—second-year (advanced) vocational typewriting.

Should training on electric typewriters be required? Because considerable training is necessary on electric typewriters, and because the second year of typewriting is offered near employment, it would seem that electric typewriting would be an item of instruction to be included. Should voice writing be taught in second-year typewriting? If a course in office practice is taken by these same students, then it would appear that voice-writing skill could be obtained elsewhere. This would also be true of office machines and, therefore, should not be offered in advanced typewriting. To what extent, for example, should numbers be taught in advanced typewriting? First determine to what extent numbers have been learned in first-year typewriting. This would determine the extent they should be presented or reviewed in vocational typewriting.

It is vitally important that one consider other departmental offerings when planning specific syllabi or courses of study. One could cull a tremendous amount of deadwood by studying other subject syllabi in the school system.

In preparing syllabi for any business subject, it would seem necessary that we review the course content for each business subject in the curriculum. Justifiable criticism for many business department offerings is the fact that much duplication of subject matter content exists. For example, negotiable instruments may be covered in as many as three or four business subjects—general business, bookkeeping, recordkeeping, and typewriting. We have sufficient content in each of these subjects without presenting the same items three or four times. It is recognized that some repetition may be desirable, but not that much.

Is the Material Up to Date in Content? This can best be illustrated in the office practice or office machines class. Certain types of mathematical machines, although once popular and widely used, are now practically obsolete and in some instances no longer manufactured. On a recent visit to one school system, the writer observed an entire room filled with these machines; and the students were learning a skill that would no longer be used even in the local community. The catalog of a major state university, until a year ago, listed a two semester hour course in "Dictaphone" where the course description indicated the student learned to shave wax cylinders.

To determine the appropriate course content, it would seem that a follow-up study of graduates, including an analysis of their duties performed, would reveal current needs. Despite the fact that follow-up studies are frequently lambasted by our "research critics" in business education, a great deal of worthwhile and usable information can be obtained from them. Five follow-up studies completed within the past year at the University of North Dakota (yes, we still have them even though some may not approve) revealed some rather startling information concerning what is actually going on in business offices today. Particularly revealing were the competencies required on new and different office machines. The high school "graduates" were quite frank in their appraisal of training received.

Information obtained from visits to offices (not just one office) may surprise many business teachers. For example, it is now more important to teach some of the new methods of error correction than the old-fashioned eraser. Typists and secretaries compose at the typewriter (I had thought composition was limited to short themes and spur-of-the-moment subjects). The electric typewriter can do many unusual and needed things in an office (I did not teach them, but I will now). We should learn of these new developments by observing business offices—the working laboratory of graduates.

Is the Material Teachable? Is the subject matter to be included in the syllabus teachable with current and available resources? Is the material capable of being taught in the school? Our resources consist of students, teachers, and materials. The subject matter must be within the range of the students. There is no merit in training stenographers with marginal intellectual capabilities or for those who are poor or failing in typewriting. The standards as set forth in the syllabi should be ascertained according to the abilities of the students. Some students may not have the ability to understand the concept of debit and credit, and perhaps these same students would be more at ease in a recordkeeping class.

Individuals without a work experience background and without a knowledge of cooperative training would have limited effectiveness if placed in charge of a cooperative training program. The primary objectives of a syllabus in this area would be lost.

In like manner, one must have the necessary equipment to teach office practice effectively. How can we teach telephone techniques without the telephone and teletrainer equipment? How can we teach filing systems without practice sets; adding machines without machines; and the like? How can we provide for individual optimum achievement of our shorthand students without multiple channel dictation equipment?

The design of syllabi and courses of study should consider the above factors within the strengths and limitations of the educational setting where they are presented.

CHAPTER 25

Classroom Visitation

Theodore Woodward

Classroom visitation is probably the most important aspect of educational supervision. The classroom teacher is the key to effective instruction and, therefore, it is necessary to secure information about his instructional strengths and weaknesses before constructive suggestions for improvement can be made. Burton and Brueckner[1] list four ways of securing data about the instructional practices of a particular teacher: (1) an analysis of measures of pupil growth, attainments, interests, and methods of work; (2) direct observation of instructional practices; (3) analysis of reports from individual teachers, pupils, observers, and groups; and (4) examination of personnel files. All of these directly concern the teacher as a measure of his effectiveness, but the second and its accompanying follow-up conference are perhaps the most frequently used.

PREPARING FOR THE VISIT

It is important that the visit be planned in advance—and well planned. A vague or hazy purpose results in vague results. The observer should determine the specific purpose or purposes of the visit and refresh his memory by reference to information available in the personnel files; particularly, records of previous visits.

The Purpose of Classroom Visits. There are many purposes of classroom visits: rating for purposes of promotion, increase in salary, or change in classification; observation of a master teacher so that new and improved methods may be made available to other teachers; appraisal of an experiment in progress, and others. The basic purpose, however, of a classroom visit by a supervisor is the improvement of instruction. This, of course, includes the teacher himself, his teaching efficiency, materials of instruction, classroom conditions, teacher-student attitudes, methodology, and other aspects of instruction.

Warmke[2] comments that:

> In the narrow sense, improving instruction might be thought of only as improving teaching methods. To improve teaching methods is important and the task certainly is part of improving instruction. However, improving instruction is more. It is providing the right content to the right group at the right time, in the right place, using the right methods.

The Approach. Burton and Brueckner[3] advise that the approach to direct observation should depend upon the purpose:

> The observer's approach will differ according to the status of the individual being observed and the purpose of the observer; for instance, the purpose of an

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[1] Burton, William H. and Brueckner, Leo J. *Supervision: A Social Process.* Third edition. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1955. p. 323.

[2] Warmke, Roman F. "Concept of Supervision." *National Business Education Quarterly* 30:31; Summer 1962.

[3] Burton, William H. and Brueckner, Leo J. *loc. cit.*

> observation of a student-teacher would be quite different from that underlying the observation of a new teacher on probation who is having serious difficulty, or of a master teacher.

There will be both general impressions and specific judgments derived from a classroom visit. In general, the supervisor is vitally interested in developing the full potential of the teacher. The teacher being observed, however, is more likely to be helped by specifics. He may need help to avoid, eliminate, or reduce the incipient causes of failure. The observer, therefore, must keep notes for analysis and interpretation.

Causes of Failure. Barr, Burton, and Brueckner[4] list 17 qualities of poor teachers, or causes of failure, as follows: lack of control over the technique of teaching, lack of ability to maintain order and discipline, lack of mastery of subject matter; lack of intelligence, effort, initiative, adaptability, common sense, physical ability; lack of standard of teaching efficiency; lack of ability to carry on, lack of singleness of purpose; lack of sympathetic understanding of pupil's social background; lack of knowledge of what pupils can do, their personality, and their moral standards. These are specifics and help toward their elimination is one of the purposes of supervision. It would seem that as the frequency of these unfavorable factors goes down, the personal and instruction efficiency of the teacher should go up.

Time of the Visit. For a formal visit with the definite purpose of rating or evaluating the teacher, a definite time should be set and the teacher informed. The "tag end" of the day is not a desirable time, especially for the teacher and students.

WHAT TO LOOK FOR

What to look for depends to a large extent upon the purpose of the visit and the status of the teacher.

Scholl[5] lists six general items to be observed: (1) general discipline and atmosphere of the classroom; (2) student participation in the educational process; (3) subject matter being presented; (4) good points of the lesson; (5) suggestions for improvement; and (6) general comments on the entire teaching process.

Barr, Burton, and Brueckner[6] provide a more extensive list of 20 items, as follows:

Pupils' interest in subject
Physical conditions in room
Attitude of pupils
Pupil activity
Definite teacher aim
Responsiveness of pupils
Attitude of teacher
General attitude of teachers and pupils
Atmosphere of classroom
Skill in teaching technique
Evidence of teacher preparation
Method of instruction
Assignment
General appearance of room

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[4] Barr, A. S., Burton, William H., and Brueckner, Leo J .*Supervision: Principles and Practices in the Improvement of Instruction.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938. pp. 359-361.

[5] Scholl, Adolph B. "The City Supervisor in the Modern School." *National Business Education Quarterly* 29:20, 21; Summer 1961.

[6] Barr, A. S., Burton, William H., and Brueckner, Leo J. *op. cit.* p. 383.

Evidence of pupil preparation
Ability of the teacher to "put across"
Teacher and pupil cooperation
Work going on
Type of questions asked by teacher
Discipline

Harris[7] writes that "looking is not observing." So that the observer may do more than just look, so that he may be more objective and systematic in his observations and avoid making subjective judgments, checklists, rating scales, and similar devices have been constructed and widely used. There are many kinds of such devices, some long and complex; others, short and easy to use. All of them, however, provide information for analysis and evaluation of the teacher and his teaching effectiveness.

Kinds of Rating Scales. Burton and Brueckner[8] describe several different kinds of such evaluating devices, among them: point scales, graphic scales, diagnostic scales, quality scales, and man-to-man comparison.

The *point scale* lists traits or factors to be rated on a pre-determined numerical scale. The scale, for example, might range from 5 for "superior" to 1 for "poor" on the particular item being rated. Factors included would be those thought to be important for the purpose of the observation, such as skill in making the assignment, skill in discovering individual differences, skill in asking questions, motivation of pupils, and others.

A *graphic scale* is constructed horizontally and is similar to a point scale except that there is usually a wider numerical spread, 0 to 10, for example. Descriptive phrases which increase the objectivity of the observer are spaced along the scale. For example, in evaluating the factor "Skill in asking questions," descriptions might range from "Asks questions with a high degree of skill," (10), to "Questions are poorly stated and ineffective," (0).

A diagnostic scale is somewhat like a multiple choice item on a test in that choices are given on the factor being rated at various levels of skill and accomplishment.

An example of this type of scale is as follows:

______ Assignment was definite; clear; superior
______ Assignment was good; above average
______ Assignment was fairly well made; average
______ Assignment was not well made; below average
______ Assignment was indefinite; hurried; poor

A *quality scale* gives a rather complete description of each factor on which the teacher is to be evaluated. The scale ranges from zero to whatever point may be assigned for superior performance. The various factors are arranged along the scale at equal intervals. The observer describes the teacher, his performance, the pupils' response, etc., in complete fashion. The following might be a description: " 'Turn to Exercise 42 and write five lines of each sentence." Several students continued to flick the keys of their typewriters while the teacher gave the instructions. He walked around the room three or four times observing the work being done, but gave no personal help to the students. After completing the exercise, the students waited for further instructions."

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[7] Harris, Ben M. *Supervisory Behavior in Education.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963. p. 155.
[8] Burton, William H. and Brueckner, Leo J. *op. cit.* pp. 344-354.

In a *man-to-man comparison,* the observer rates the teacher on the basis of other teachers whom he has rated as superior, average, poor, etc. This method is subject to the halo effect and considerable error in judgment. Variation of this method is used by business in determining merit ratings. A supervisor rates each employee for whom he is responsible on a single factor. Then he rates all of them on a second factor; then on the third, and so on until all are completed. This method reduces the effect of favoritism.

Desirable and Undesirable Classroom Practices. Franseth[9] writes that learning opportunities are improving when the practices observed are:

More Like These	*and*	*Less Like These*
Teacher is helping pupils achieve on their own levels of ability and is trying to meet a wide range of differences in ability.		Teacher is motivated by a single grade-standard for all pupils in his class. Opportunities for slow and rapid learners are especially limited.

Morgan[10] observes that

> While rating of teachers as staff members continues, the emphasis is changing. . . . Now, the emphasis is shifting from affability and docility of the teacher to his capacity to contribute to the whole school. The concern is less, at this time, with his willingness to work with extracurricular revision, say, than with the nature of his contribution to the work.

EVALUATION OF STUDENT TEACHERS

The purpose of a visit to observe a student teacher is different from the purpose of observing an experienced teacher, or even a beginning teacher. Student teaching is an important part of the teacher-preparation program. The student needs help in lesson planning, disciplinary control, classroom organization, the engendering of a feeling of confidence and security. These are not necessarily needed by an experienced teacher or even by a first-year teacher to the same degree.

Critic teachers, college supervision coordinators, the school principal, or the business education supervisor—any and all of them make certain observations of the student teacher and his performance. To assist in making these observations as objective as possible, observation records or rating forms are used as for experienced teachers. Some of these are long and detailed; others are short and simple. The checklist below is an example of the latter. It is a list of 18 items, each one being checked as U (unsatisfactory), A (adequate), and E (excellent). The items are as follows:

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[9] Franseth, Jane. *Supervision as Leadership.* Evanston: Row, Peterson and Company, 1961. pp. 159, 160.

[10] Morgan, Raymond W. "Accentuations in Evaluating Teacher Personnel." *National Business Education Quarterly* 26:27; Summer 1958.

- Appearance
- Voice
- Grammar
- Enthusiasm
- Poise
- Environmental Management
- Instructional Materials
- Introduction/Summary
- Subject Mastery
- Planning/Organizing
- Creativity/Flexibility
- Provision for Individuals
- Discipline
- Sense of Responsibility
- Rapport
- Staff Relations
- Pupil Participation
- Using Pupils' Experiences

Another observation form concerned with the personal and professional qualities of the student teacher has a 3-part descriptive checking arrangement, or scale. The items and the descriptive scale are as follows:

Appearance	Unattractive	Acceptable	Attractive
Voice/Speech	Ineffective	Adequate	Pleasing
Vigor	Listless	Satisfactory	Energetic
Poise/Stability	Tense	Balanced	Confident
Knowledge of Subject Matter	Inadequate	Adequate	Extensive
Planning/Organizing	Insufficient	Sufficient	Extensive
Resourcefulness	Slow	Sensitive	Creative
Pupil Participation	Indifferent	Willing	Eager
Class Control	Disorganized	Orderly	Well Organized
Awareness of Pupil Progress	Poor	Satisfactory	Effective
Sense of Responsibility	Evasive	Reasonable	Dependable
Cooperation	Poor	Able	Eager
Professional Attitude	Negative	Acceptable	Constructive
Probability of Success	Doubtful	Good	Outstanding

Observation records for student teachers will vary from school to school and from observer to observer, but whatever items are included should be those which are deemed to be essential for the accurate appraisal of a student's potential success as a teacher. An accurate appraisal, a fair and unbiased appraisal, is extremely important to the student's future. His strengths and weaknesses should be noted. Praise should be given where deserved, criticism should be constructive, and guidance should be perceptive and encouraging. Final appraisal of the student's performance should be a consensus of the evaluations of the critic teacher, the college supervisor, and perhaps the principal. It should be based upon several observations.

Good observation requires considerable experience, training, and personal qualitities of discernment and good judgment. The observer must be as objective as possible, avoid bias or favoritism, understand people, and not be prone to make snap judgments.

FOLLOWING THE VISIT

A visit to a classroom for the purpose of rating the teacher should be followed by a conference, or interview, with the teacher at a time that is convenient and a place that is quiet. The conference may be long or short, or it may extend over several periods, depending upon the purpose of the visit. It should follow the visit as soon as possible while impressions are still vivid.

If it wasn't possible to make a complete record of the observation while in the classroom, this should be done as quickly and as completely as possible immediately after leaving. Harris [11] writes that:

> Recording observation data immediately after leaving the classroom is very important. Impressions are lost or distorted quickly by intervening experiences and time. When little recording is done in the classroom itself, time and solitude should be allotted for recording from memory in considerable detail. When the observation includes in-class recording, additional time will be required for completing the record, filling in details, and clarifying meanings. . . .

When a checklist is used, the rating on a particular item should be supported by some specific observation justifying it. This makes the observation more objective and provides "evidence" to be used during the conference.

The purpose of the conference is not to find fault but to share information, interpret the activities observed, point out the strengths and weaknesses, plan for improvement, and become better acquainted. For the beginning teacher or for the teacher new to the school, special help might be needed to improve methods or materials, disciplinary control, or classroom organization. Most teachers, too, need assurance from their supervisors.

The teacher should be given an opportunity to defend or explain his methods or procedures. If the observer is uncertain about some aspect of the teacher's work, judgment should be withheld until further observations have been made. Praise should be given for a lesson well taught, a situation well met. Criticism should be used sparingly and cautiously and should at all times be constructive.

The teacher should welcome classroom visitation, whether casual or scheduled. It provides him many opportunities for the improvement of his instruction, if received and accepted in a professional spirit. Most certainly, it provides him an opportunity to see himself as someone else sees him.

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[11] Harris, Ben M. *op. cit.* p. 158.

CHAPTER 26

Public Relations for Business Education

Calfrey C. Calhoun

The expansion of our school system from its early, restricted beginning to the present system of universal education affecting the lives of all Americans has been accompanied by an increasing need for a more conscious and systematic attention to the public image of education. The purpose of this chapter is to consider some of the thinking, practices, and procedures in the area of school public relations, and to recommend a possible approach to the improvement of communication and understanding between business education and its special publics.

For our purpose, "public relations" is defined as the process of improving the relations of a school with its special publics or a general public. A public is any group of persons who are bound together by common beliefs and interests. In a cumulative sense, "The public relations of any institution are the sum total of all the impressions made by the institution itself and by the various persons connected with it."[1]

Kindred sees school public relations as a "process of communication between the school and community for the purpose of increasing citizen understanding of educational needs and practices and encouraging intelligent citizen interest and cooperation in the work of improving the school."[2]

"Public relations for business education" is, in an inclusive sense, the sum total of all the influences at work in a school situation that bring about sound relationships between the department and its special publics. When applied to business education, public relations involves the inter-action of teachers and students with a wide range of internal and external publics.

THE OBJECTIVES OF PUBLIC RELATIONS

The needs and objectives of public relations programs are fundamentally the same for all types of publicly supported colleges and universities. A sound public relations program must be based upon a policy with clearly conceived purposes. It must be based upon a study of the community's needs and upon a sound social and educational philosophy. It must provide a plan of action based upon needs and purposes, with definitely placed responsibility. It should provide a sound working contact between all patrons and all employees, should be positive and aggressive, but friendly, and should cover all aspects of the school's activities.

Public relations should be a two-way communicative process between school and community. A community's schools are particularly faced with this problem of two-way liaison, for in order to serve the community properly, the school must know the community and its needs; conversely, a school must keep the community informed if the school expects to be supported financially and otherwise.

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[1] Reck, W. Emerson, *Public Relations: A Program for Colleges and Universities.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946. p. 8.

[2] Kindred, Leslie W. *School Public Relations.* Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957. p. 16.

As a social institution owned and operated by the people, the school depends for its continuance and support upon the status of public opinion. The way citizens think and act in regard to selection of board personnel, tax rates, plant, curriculum, salaries, supplies, equipment, special services and the like, not only establishes the limits of institutional functioning, but also influences the policies and practices by which the work of the institution is done.[3]

School administrators and teachers are not expected to be experts in the area of public relations, but they should have a practical knowledge of the importance of public opinion—how it is formed, why people react as they do.

The following objectives for a school public relations program are stated by Orler from a study by Hickey:

(a) to inform the public about the work of the schools;
(b) to rally support for proper maintenance of the educational program;
(c) to establish confidence in the schools;
(d) to develop awareness of the importance of education;
(e) to improve the partnership concept by uniting parents and teachers in meeting the educational needs of children;
(f) to integrate the home, school, and community in improving educational opportunities for all children;
(g) to evaluate the offerings of the school in meeting the needs of the children in the community;
(h) to correct misunderstandings as to the aims and objectives of the schools.[4]

The development of our public schools has far outstripped a similar development of a widespread popular understanding of them. Administrators and teachers have been too fully absorbed in the immediate problems at hand to give adequate attention to the problem of informing the public and enlisting its support for education.

NEED FOR PUBLIC RELATIONS IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

Business educators have been talking to themselves too much, too often, too long. In so doing, we have submerged ourselves in the technicalities of teaching, and we have failed to explain ourselves to administrators, to parents, to businessmen, and to the general public.

As an integral part of the total school program, business education faces the continuous and challenging task of interpreting its objectives and purposes to publics both inside and outside the school. In addition, business education is particularly concerned with relationships arising from existing or potential contact with business and industry as an outgrowth of the school's educational program.

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[3] *Ibid.*, p. 8.

[4] Orler, Allen J. *Junior College Public Relations.* Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1954. p.10. (Quoting John M. Hickey, *Direction of Public School Relations in Cities of the United States.* Doctor's dissertation. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, 1945. p. 51.)

Corporations make sure that all of their employees who meet the public are thoroughly trained to represent the company. Business educators, too, need to acquire more competence in cultivating the good will of its publics. It is the responsibility of every business teacher, supervisor, and administrator to sell business education and to win the good will of its public.

Today, it is certain that if business education is to maintain its effectiveness, it must earn the support of more people. Through a planned public relations approach, business education can achieve such cooperation and support, interpret its goals and purposes, justify the expanded costs of improving and extending the business program, and prevent or answer attack and criticism.

Hendrickson lists six types of problems faced by business educators which have strong implications for a public relations program. These are the need to (1) define business education, to point out the objectives and goals; (2) define the standards to which business education ascribes; (3) interpret methods of teaching the business subjects; (4) change the stereotypes that have become rooted in the minds of various publics about business education; (5) point out the accomplishments of business education; and (6) interpret what is being done to improve the quality of the business program.[5]

Needs and objectives translate themselves into activities and media. The effectiveness of a school's public relations is determined in part by the media selected and the way they are used.

PUBLIC RELATIONS ACTIVITIES AND MEDIA

The media of public relations, from a simple handshake to the most elaborate publicity program, are the vehicles of communication which succeed or fail on the basis of how well they are understood. Wise selection and use of publicity devices, for example, require that educators see the relationship between educational interpretation and the basic objective of the public relations program, which is to maintain a wholesome two-way relationship of school and community. This implies also that appropriate tools must be selected to interpret each element within the entire field of school services.

One medium alone seldom will be enough to cover the interpretative needs relating to a given problem or topic. Several media, aptly chosen and developed together, usually will achieve the purposes better than any single device. A study should be made of the methods and content used in reaching each individual or group through each avenue of public relations.

The basic problem presented in implementing a program of public relations is that of determining *which* activities and practices can be relied upon to interpret business education to the publics it serves. A variety of techniques and ideas are needed for continuous effect. Publicity and stunts may attract the public, but sound activities that will get all publics involved with the program are needed to maintain support and continued confidence for the business education program.

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[5] Hendrickson, William J. *Public Relations for Business Education: An Analysis of Activities and Practices with Recommendations for Improvement*. Doctor's dissertation. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. p. 4-5.

Public Relations Checklist. A study by the writer dealt with a determination of the most effective activities, practices, and media for interpreting the school through its business education program. This study involved (a) formulating a public relations checklist for business education; (b) administering the checklist to three national juries of school public relations directors, public relations consultants in business, and business education authorities; (c) evaluating the activities by using a national sample of business teachers; and (d) examining the activities in school situations to determine their effectiveness.[6]

Activities or media designed to reach the publics were classified into three general categories: (1) Public relations activities which may be used to reach *external* school publics, including merchants and businessmen, parents, community organizations, professional organizations, colleges, other schools, and alumni; (2) Public relations activities which may be used to reach *internal* school publics, including school administrators, teachers, guidance personnel, and students and (3) *School-sponsored activities,* which, by their nature, serve to promote good public relations for business education.

In the study by the writer, the following activities and media were judged by the public relations juries as having significant potential for promoting business education. They were considered practical by business education teachers and were found to be effective in school situations. They are recommended to business educators as practices which have been found theoretically possible, practically workable, and effectively useful.

PUBLIC RELATIONS CHECKLIST FOR BUSINESS EDUCATION

I. *Activities Used by the Business Education Teacher to Reach External Publics*

   A. Teacher's Public Relations Contacts with Businessmen

      1. Instituting a "Business-Industry-Education Day"
      2. Maintaining informal contacts with business
      3. Conducting co-operative work-experience program
      4. Holding a summer position in business
      5. Conducting surveys of business
      6. Using business-sponsored instructional aids
      7. Attending business-sponsored workshop and conferences for teachers
      8. Setting up an adult education program
      9. Attending and participating in National Office Management Association meetings

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[6] Calhoun, Calfrey C. *The Identification, Classification and Evaluation of Public Relations Activities and Practices in Secondary-School Business Education.* Doctor's thesis. Columbus: The Ohio State University, 1960. pp. 316-319.

- B. Public Relations Contacts with Parents
  - 1. Reporting on students' work
  - 2. Holding a school open house event
  - 3. Issuing information explaining the business education program
  - 4. Receiving visitors at school
  - 5. Participating in Parent-Teacher Association Activities
- C. Public Relations Contacts through Professional Groups
  - 1. National, state business education associations
  - 2. Local business education associations
  - 3. National and state education associations
  - 4. Local education associations
- D. Public Relations through Colleges and the State Department of Education
  - 1. Training business education student teachers
  - 2. Co-operating in research studies
  - 3. Participating in conferences and workshops
- E. Public Relations Contacts with Prospective Students and Alumni
  - 1. Providing information to prospective students about the business education program
  - 2. Making surveys of business education alumni.
- F. Public Relations Contacts of Business Teachers with Other Outside Groups
  - 1. Sharing instructional materials or ideas with business education departments of other schools
  - 2. Making contacts with the public through newspaper and magazine articles about business education in the school
  - 3. Providing information regarding student qualification for jobs on request of local business or employment bureau

II. *School-Sponsored Activities that Promote Good Relations for Business Education*

- A. Clubs, Displays, Assemblies, Field Trips
  - 1. Future Business Leaders of America
  - 2. Honorary, service and special-interest clubs in which business students participate
  - 3. Business education classroom bulletin boards
  - 4. Assembly demonstrations by expert typists, machine operators
  - 5. Field trips to offices, stores, plants in the community
- B. School Observance of Special Days of Weeks
  - 1. Parent-Visitation Day (or Night)
  - 2. Education-Industry-Business Day
  - 3. Career Day (or Week)
  - 4. American Education Week
- C. Special Services by Business Students for Teachers, Administrators or the Community
  - 1. Office Assistant to members of the school staff
  - 2. Guest speaker representing business education before community groups

III. *Activities Used by the Business Education Teacher to Reach Internal School Publics*

- A. Effective Internal Relations through Contacts with Students
  - 1. Maintaining an effective instructional program
  - 2. Providing guidance in planning a program and choosing a career

   3. Using an office laboratory for instruction
   4. Recognizing outstanding student achievement
   5. Sponsoring and participating in student organizations and programs
   6. Using special materials and equipment

B. Effective Relationships with Administrators and Supervisory Personnel
   1. Keeping administration informed through an annual report
   2. Preparing interim reports of business education activities
   3. Reporting newspaper or magazine articles published by business teachers
   4. Issuing departmental booklets or information describing the business education program

C. Better Relationships with Other Faculty Members
   1. Being a participant at faculty meetings
   2. Serving on interdepartmental committees
   3. Exchanging professional literature or instructional materials and ideas

D. Contacts with the Guidance Counselor or Staff
   1. Co-operating in instructional and job placement of students
   2. Assisting in administering and analyzing tests for students—vocational, aptitude, achievement
   3. Keeping counselor informed of latest developments in business education
   4. Co-operating in preparation and maintenance of literature dealing with business opportunities and requirements

E. Contacts with School Office, Maintenance and Service Staff
   1. Using the school office as a training station for business education students
   2. Providing information about business courses, curricula and students to office staff
   3. Issuing invitations to visit the business education department during special events

F. Relationships with School as a Whole
   1. Holding informal conversations with all school personnel
   2. Issuing invitations to participate in business education programs
   3. Making departmental machines, equipment and facilities available to school personnel

A number of research studies have been completed which throw additional light upon the treatment of public relations in business education.

RESEARCH IN PUBLIC RELATIONS FOR BUSINESS EDUCATION

A careful review of research reveals relatively few studies of public relations in business education. Since 1947, studies by McFarland, Dugan, and Giffin were directed toward the central problem of determining school-community relationships.

McFarland found that only one-third of the business teachers he surveyed evinced a desire for greater community participation, while the other two-thirds were either content with the status-quo or desirous of further reducing the amount of their activities.[7] Business teachers made it clear that the major causes for inability to pursue community responsibilities were their large classes and the burden of their heavy teaching loads.

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[7] McFarland, Douglas E. *A Study of Certain Community Relationships of Business Teachers in the Public Secondary Schools of Michigan.* Master's thesis. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1947.

Dugan also found that business teachers whom he surveyed were not appreciably active in their communities.[8]

Lallman studied the public relations agents and media for promoting business education, and developed a handbook for use by teachers.[9]

Hendrickson identified the public relations practices used by business educators in three Eastern states, finding that most of the activities and media reported were chiefly of an informal nature.[10]

Some of the conclusions drawn from the aforementioned study by the writer provide additional insight into the role of public relations in the business education program at the secondary level:

1. Formally organized and planned public relations programs do not exist in most secondary schools.
2. Activities rated highest by business teachers tend to reflect a wide range of activities, emphasizing those in which the business teacher plays a teaching role.
3. There is high agreement between business teachers and public relations specialists on the activities which have little public relations value.
4. Business teachers tend to value contacts with business more than community civic-service activities from a public relations standpoint.
5. A tendency exists among schools strong in the business education area toward the incorporation of a large number of recognized public relations practices into the school program.
6. A close relationship does not exist between the business education department in the school and the businessmen in the community served in a large number of communities.
7. Businessmen as a group tend to be aware of the public relations problems which exist between the school and the community and would welcome more contacts with the school. Businessmen tend to look with special favor upon work experience programs.
8. The greatest contribution to the school's public relations program through business education, in the opinions of school public relations directors, business education authorities, and business public relations consultants polled in this study, comes through the use of activities which bring the business education program directly into contact with business.[11]

Additional research is needed in further development and refinement measures for evaluating public relations activities and practices to determine the conditions under which they may function most effectively. Research is also needed to investigate the understandings held by various publics regarding business education and the types of information desired by such publics about the field.

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[8] Dugan, James M. *A Study of the Community Relationships of Business Teachers in the Public Secondary Schools of Iowa.* Master's thesis. Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1952.

[9] Lallman, Marian Ellen. *A Public Relations Handbook for the Business Teacher.* Master's thesis. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1953.

[10] Hendrickson, William J. *Public Relations for Business Education: An Analysis of Activities and Practices with Recommendations for Improvement.* Doctoral thesis. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953.

[11] Calhoun, *op. cit.*, pp. 322-24.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR PUBLIC RELATIONS

The passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 may have been the most significant and far-reaching development which has ever affected business education from a public relations point of view. For this important piece of legislation, which gave long overdue recognition and financial support to vocational office education, has brought business education, as never before, into the public eye. At the same time, it has placed an important obligation upon business educators everywhere to develop improved programs which merit the support which has been authorized. Such an obligation calls for concerted action by all business educators, including national representatives; state, city, and county supervisors and coordinators; high school and college department heads; and classroom teachers. It is likely that, as a first step, one important result of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 will be the establishment of supervisors of business education in all states not now having such supervision. The consequence of this act alone is incalculable in terms of the public relations benefits and improvements which may accrue to the field.

The upgrading of high school business education programs, expansion of business training through area vocational-technical schools, the improvement and reorganization of college and university business education programs, the opportunities for further development of the field through the application of research, and the development of in-service teacher education programs include only a few of the benefits to be available through the Vocational Education Act which have implications for vastly improved public relations for business education.

Public Relations at the National Level. Many of the problems affecting business education today are nation wide in their scope. Administration and supervision from the standpoint of the specialist for office education in the U.S. Office of Education is concerned with the over-all appraisal of conditions. Through consultations with the states and through the collection, development, and dissemination of information, the national office serves to facilitate communication about business education.

Some typical activities of the specialist for office education that serve to promote public relations include:

1. Working with representatives of the school program and having an unbiased understanding of the total school program.
2. Seeing the possibilities for business education to serve the total community through adult programs.
3. Representing business education to professional and advisory groups.
4. Advising teachers, administrators, and other interested persons.
5. Being a dynamic, capable leader who will promote and represent business education.
6. Helping to bring professionals and laymen together in the interests of business education.

7. Encouraging professional growth of teachers through in-service training, advanced study, and professional activity.
8. Serving as a channel for communication between business educators.[12]

The organization and maintenance of a department of public relations through the National Business Education would assist its affiliated regional, state, and local associations in interpreting business education to the nation. Naturally, a close working relationship would exist between the NBEA and the U. S. Office of Education.

Public Relations at the State Level. At the state level, the business education supervisor serves as an example of the public relations principles that he advocates for teachers. He must exemplify these by the manner in which he cooperates with teachers, administrators, and business and community leaders.

Leadership at the state level is usually divided between administrative and supervisory responsibilities. Administration, usually prescribed by law, involves state and federally aided programs such as those authorized by the Area Redevelopment Act, Manpower Development and Training Act, and the Vocational Education Act of 1963. Supervisory responsibilities, on the other hand, usually revolve around the improvement of instructional programs.

Peck recommends some specific activities and media for use by the business education supervisor in promoting business education:

1. Meet and work with community leaders whenever possible.
2. Have a wide acquaintance with businessmen and be in a position to recommend businessmen to serve on advisory committees.
3. Encourage the holding of various types of business education conferences, including those involving businessmen, on campus of teacher-education schools; serve as a co-ordinator between business teachers, teacher-education schools, and businessmen.
4. Provide leadership and assistance in planning and holding B-I-E Days, Career Days, and other special days.
5. Assist in organizing and carrying on cooperative work programs.
6. Assist teachers in securing summer employment in business by making surveys and compiling data in regard to possibilities for such employment.
7. Encourage maximum participation in professional organizations.
8. Help administrators understand and appreciate the part business education plays in the total educational program and the importance of an enriched business program.
9. Help bridge misunderstandings between business educators and other teachers in the school and between business teachers and the administration.[13]

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[12] Blackstone, Bruce I. "The Role of USOE in Office Education." *National Business Education Quarterly* 29:8-11, 53; May 1961.

[13] Peck, Gladys. "Implications to the State Supervisor." *National Business Education Quarterly* 21: 51-56; Winter 1952.

Media most frequently used by state supervisors in carrying out their responsibilities include (1) personal classroom visits, (2) conferences—state, area, local, (3) newsletters, (4) workshops, and (5) in-service training meetings.

The City or County Supervisor of Business Education. The public relations responsibilities and opportunities of the city or county supervisor of business education cannot be overestimated. The supervisor who brings to the position a depth of understanding of the theory and application of the business subjects as well as the special ability to motivate, cooperate, and lead teachers toward greater professional competence will make public relations an integral part of his job.

He should be able to (1) assist administrators and teachers in the planning of programs; (2) assist teaching personnel in improving their instruction; (3) help in the organization and preparation of instructional materials; (4) evaluate the results of instruction; and (5) secure the facilities, equipment, and conditions which are conducive to good leadership.

One of the foremost responsibilities of the city or county supervisor is the promotion of the business education program through personal contacts with those who carry out the program. In many instances, this involves selling superintendents and principals upon the importance of vocational education.

Business teachers must be able to look upon the supervisor as a friend and as a valuable resource person who can provide help where it is needed. Working closely with the principal (who must be kept well informed and whose authority must always be respected), the supervisor must be responsive to the day-to-day classroom problems facing teachers. Through letters and bulletins, through departmental or sectional meetings, and through individual association, teachers must be kept informed and made to feel that they are a part of the educational team. Through his participation in meetings such as the Parent-Teacher Association, through radio and television programs, and through newspaper publicity, parents and the general public can be kept informed of the value of a good business education and the accomplishment of local programs.

Students are affected and react positively to good publicity about the business education program such as that provided through the school newspaper, brochures, and special materials which the supervisor may originate or disseminate. Recognition of students through special awards, certificates, securing their participation in Business-Education Day events, in work experience programs or employer-employee banquets are other examples of activities which provide students with further insight into the value of education for business.

The city or county business education supervisor, through his own participation in community civic and professional organizations realizes an excellent opportunity for the acceptance and promotion of business education. It is the business segment of the public that responds most actively to business education; consequently, membership of the supervisor in such organizations as the Administrative Management Society, Chamber of Commerce, and business advisory committees are most productive from a public relations view.

Public Relations and the Departmental Chairman. The maintenance and improvement of relationships both inside and outside the school is a major responsibility of the business education administrator. When the departmental work is done effectively, the public relations image of the program is well begun. That, however, is not enough. Others must know what is being done and must recognize that business education is an integral and important part of the school program. The program must be "sold" to the school and the community; an atmosphere of appreciation and understanding must be consciously cultivated.

Satlow recommends a four-fold basic philosophy for the departmental chairman in dealing with the public:

> 1. Cultivate the ability to make other people's problems your own. This does not mean meddling in other people's business, but being ready and willing to assist whenever possible.
> 2. Find time to be of assistance when it is needed. Hiding behind the cloak of a busy schedule does not promote sound public relations. The person who has a pressing problem cannot be made to wait for a more convenient time. Sound public relations have to be paid for and a most effective medium is time.
> 3. Develop a reputation for fairness and equal treatment for all. Failure to adhere to this principle tears down good will that has been built up in the past.
> 4. Cooperate with other departments. Dealing in "cut-throat competition" tactics to gain students, equipment, or teaching facilities never results in the promotion of good will. The first step in developing and maintaining good will is a business education department that is well organized and works in harmony.[14]

Four simple steps are recommended for establishing and maintaining sound intra-departmental relationships: (1) Know what you want to do; (2) Let your staff in on things; (3) Let your staff share in the shaping of policy; and (4) Have all department members—including yourself—share in both the desirable and undesirable assignments.[15]

It is essential that the department chairman know his community in order to provide an adequate program that is appropriate for its particular needs. Promotion of public relations with business and other external publics may evolve through such activities as the following:

1. Discovering the needs of business through occupational or employee surveys
2. Meeting these needs through school training programs

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[14] Satlow, I. David. "Maintaining Public Relations." *Business Education World* 40:37; March 1960. p. 37.

3. Participating in the work of community groups
4. Using the services of businessmen
5. Publicizing the offerings of the department
6. Using care in the selection of supplies and equipment
7. Making curriculum changes as needed
8. Providing supervision of the teaching program.[16]

There are numerous avenues for developing and maintaining sound public relations both inside and outside the school for the alert and enthusiastic departmental chairman. The basic ingredient in a public relations program is a genuine interest in a sound school program.

Public Relations and the Business Teacher. If a teacher decides to organize a public relations program, he may well examine the plans used in other schools; from these he may obtain worth-while ideas. He must also read widely in the field of business education, especially from articles and reports of research studies which have concerned themselves with public relations. Too often, business educators have failed to make use of existing opportunities to cement effective relations with interested publics.

Teacher-education schools need to give systematic attention to the preparation of teachers in the area of public relations. "If business education is to receive the recognition it deserves and is to be given full credit for what it is doing, our colleges and universities must develop business teachers who have an understanding of their public relations responsibilities.[17]

The business teacher is an important human link between the school and business. The strength of that link will determine, in a large measure, whether or not the school is keeping abreast of the needs of the community and whether the school is actually fitting its graduates to take their places in business. In making a positive effort to know the needs of local business, such as promoting cooperative vocational office training programs, follow-up studies of business graduates, field trips, and informal contacts with businessmen, the teacher can adjust his teaching procedures and curriculum to meet the demands of his employment community. These liaison-with-business activities, if properly co-ordinated, will do much to bring into proper focus the school, the student, and the business community.

Because of the unique relationship between business education on one hand and community business and professional groups on the other, the business teacher should be a leader in the field of public relations. He should take the initiative in securing meaningful cooperation of internal and external school publics. This involves improvement of his technique of informing others about the school. "Do well and people think well of you" should be

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[15] *Ibid.*

[16] Graham, Jessie, and others. "The Role of the Administrator of Business Education." ***Community Cooperation in Business Education.*** American Business Education Yearbook. Somerville, New Jersey: Somerset Press, 1944. pp. 189-90.

[17] Nolan, C. A., and Hayden, Carlos K. ***Principles and Problems of Business Education.*** Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Company, 1958. p. 312.

the teacher's primary motivation, but in order to get the business education story across, it is necessary to implement a clear-cut public relations policy with action. This calls for a consideration of activities and media.

PLANNING THE PUBLIC RELATIONS PROGRAM: WORKING WITH THE COMMUNITY

There is an increasing need on the part of the school for an information service. It is a mistake to assume that the public understands the objectives, scope, or achievements of the secondary schools or colleges. It is also incorrect to assume that the public appreciates the difficulties faced by the schools in their efforts to provide an appropriate education for all children.

The alert business educator will need to resolve the following fundamental questions with regard to his public relations approach:

1. *What does the public already know about the program and what does the public want to know?* Without this information, it is difficult to plan an effective and appropriate approach to public relations. There is a need for community surveys to determine what information the public already has and the types of information they are interested in. Too often we spend time repeating information that the public already knows and neglecting to give them the information they want to receive.

2. *What training in public relations should the teacher receive and where should the training be given?* There is general agreement that the teacher is a very important agent in the public relations program. Studies by Calhoun, Hendrickson, and others point out the lack of preparation by teachers in the area of public relations and a need for the inclusion of such training in the formal professional preparation of teachers. In-service programs provide a means of supplementing this training.

3. *How can students be so instructed about the department that they will aid in its proper interpretation to the public?* Well trained graduates who perform successfully on the job do much to assist in the understanding of the importance of the business education program. Students should be well acquainted with the aims and purposes of the program.

Once the business educator has resolved these three questions, he is in a better position to outline the scope and sequence of his public relations approach.

Steps in Planning a Public Relations Program. Predmore conducted a questionnaire examination to determine the policies and procedures that make up the public relations programs in the secondary schools of Florida. Criteria forming the basis of his questionnaire form an excellent basis for analysis of any school's public relations program.

Part I—Planning the Program

1. Democratic procedures should be used in determining the policies and procedures of the program.
2. The program should be based on systematic studies of the community.
3. The total school should share the planning with the administration.

Part II—Administration of the Program

1. The administration of the program should be shared. Authority should be commensurate with responsibility.
2. The administration, as responsible for the entire school, should accept responsibility for the leadership of the program.
3. School-community co-relationship should be urged by the administration.

Part III—Contents of the Program

1. The program should be balanced. Each aspect of the school program should share in the public relations and information service of the school.
2. Service should be continuous without pressure campaigns or special publicity programs.
3. Everyday school life should be the basis of information to the public. Parents and community are more interested in the daily program of the school than in the special events that occur.

Part IV—Methods of Presentation of the Program

1. Media should be selected for a particular type of information. A careful study should be made of presentation techniques.
2. All presentation should be checked thoroughly for accuracy, honesty, and clarity. The public will judge the school by its information service.
3. The student and staff members are the most important factors of public relations. They should be instructed in the public relations program.

Part V—Evaluation

1. Both informal and objective checks should be made to evaluate the program.
2. The evaluation should be on a continuous basis with constant revision and improvement of the program.
3. Public opinion should be made a part of the evaluation criteria.[18]

SUMMARY

Public relations for business education is the sum total of influences at work in a school situation that bring about sound relationships between the program and its publics. An effective public relations program must be based upon a sound educational philosophy and clearly conceived purposes. Business education is particularly concerned with relationships arising from existing or potential contacts with business and industry. Media for interpreting business education may be classified as (a) those directed toward *internal* school personnel, (b) those directed toward *external* public groups, and (c) *school-sponsored* activities. Research has aided the identification, development, utilization, and evaluation of measures for promoting business education. Business educators at all levels—national, state, and local—are responsible for the public relations image of their department. Effective steps in carrying out a public relations program include (a) planning the program, (b) administering the program, (c) determining content of the program, (d) methods of presenting the program, and (e) evaluating the program.

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[18] Predmore, Lewis E. *Policies and Procedures of Public Relations in Florida Secondary Schools.* Master's thesis. Columbus: The Ohio State University, 1953. pp. 14-15.

CHAPTER 27

The Orientation of New Teachers

Gordon F. Culver

Beginning teachers represent the lifeblood of the teaching profession. They represent the progress that teacher education has made in preparing a better qualified staff for the nation's schools. A new business teacher in a school is cause for considerable excitement. In him the school administration and the school board have placed their hopes for a better program in business education. This will be accomplished by him alone if he is the only business teacher in the school or by his working with other business teachers if he is part of a larger business education staff.

Most beginning teachers approach their first teaching assignments with anticipation and excitement, but they also have feelings of inadequacy, inferiority, and outright misgivings. They regard themselves as novices only and fail to be aware of anything other than their limitations due to inexperience and youth.

The new teacher should gain some security from the fact that he was selected for the job; this in itself is evidence that the administration has faith in his qualifications and his ability. A new teacher brings to a faculty and a school a fresh point of view. If the new teacher is also a beginning teacher, he will in all likelihood represent the latest results of research. The new teacher will usually bring to a new job an enthusiasm for teaching which is contagious, and older staff members may receive a professional shot-in-the-arm from their associations with him.

First-year teachers should be reminded that high school students generally prefer younger teachers to older teachers because they feel that the younger teachers have a better understanding of them. High school students tend to cooperate well with young teachers who demonstrate a thorough knowledge of their subject matter area and who exemplify the more important qualities of young adults. High school students find it particularly satisfying to be guided in their educational pursuits by a person who is young enough to "speak their language" but with the maturity and the educational and social background to command their respect in the classroom.

The arrival of a new teacher in a school is indeed an important occasion; however, because of him, an obligation is placed on the school administration, the older staff members, and the business community to contribute to the newly appointed teacher's satisfactory adjustment to the new situation.

IMPORTANCE OF PLANNED ORIENTATION PROGRAMS

Research indicates that most teachers who leave the teaching profession do so within two to five years after beginning to teach. Much of the dissatisfaction and unhappiness of these teachers can be traced to their initial experiences in the profession. Many capable beginning teachers have become disillusioned and lost to the profession by their school's following of the out-moded hands-off, let-'em-sink-or-swim policy. Fortunately, a more sympathetic approach has evolved over the years until today the philosophy generally prevails that the profession has a responsibility—in fact, an obligation—to help the beginning teacher make the transition from insecure neophyte to poised and confident teacher. As a result, the orientation of new and beginning teachers is now regarded as a highly important aspect of educational administration.

Although it is the professional duty of each teacher to assist a new teacher in adapting to a new situation and to help him acquire a feeling of belonging to the staff, the initiative for providing orientation services rests with the superintendent in a public school or with the dean or comparable administrator in a college or university. These administrators will often delegate the responsibility to an assistant or a committee. Whoever is delegated to handle the orientation of new teachers, the responsibility is important enough to call for careful, intelligent, and systematic planning and evaluating. The assignment should not be taken lightly. The orientation program can contribute to the new teacher's feelings of security and sense of belonging; it can assist him in settling down quickly to the routines in school; and it can help him to adjust more quickly to the community. If these outcomes are considered and provided for in an effective program of orientation, the results are likely to be reflected in improved instruction and high teacher morale.

PLANNING THE ORIENTATION PROCEDURES

In planning an orientation program, certain guidelines should be observed. The following appear to be some of the more important ones:

1. *The orientation program should be the fixed responsibility of a specific individual or committee.*
2. *The orientation program should be adapted to the school system and to an individual school.*
2. *The orientation program should be adapted to the school system and to playing a major role in its preparation.* It is difficult for school administrators to anticipate all the problems and areas of possible misunderstanding and difficulty.
4. *The orientation program should be flexible enough to care for the varying needs of a beginning teacher as opposed to an experienced teacher.* The keystone of the orientation program is individual attention.
5. *The orientation program should provide an opportunity for an exchange of ideas between the new teachers and the administration.* Periodic meetings of new and beginning teachers should be held—particularly during the first two or three months of school—for the purpose of discussing mutual problems and providing information on subjects of common concern.
6. *The orientation program should include consideration of the social, emotional, and personal concerns of new teachers.*

7. *The orientation program should resort to procedures which will encourage a rapid adjustment of the new teacher to the teaching situation.*
8. *The orientation program should provide for effective research procedures to determine the value of the orientation program and to learn of ways to improve it.*

The orientation of new teachers is not something that can be done in a specific time period. Neither is the development of a fool-proof orientation program something that can be accomplished overnight. Rather, such a program is a developmental process with persons in many different capacities working together to make more satisfactory and pleasant the introduction of new teachers into new teaching situations and continuing as long as the program benefits the new personnel.

SOME SUCCESSFUL ORIENTATION PRACTICES

Over the years, experience has indicated that attention and consideration given to specific factors can facilitate the rapid and satisfactory adjustment of teachers to new teaching situations. The following procedures and provisions are most often mentioned when the orientation and adjustment of new and beginning teachers is considered.

Assignment of New Teachers. If at all possible, the beginning teacher should be placed in a protected environment; such a procedure would shield him during his first year of teaching from inheriting such problems as having an inordinate number of the school's discipline cases. Class size should also be considered, with beginning teachers assigned to relatively small classes wherever possible. The teaching assignment should not lead the new teacher to feel that he is the "clean-up" or "et cetera" teacher, teaching classes that were not wanted by tenured personnel.

Teaching Schedules of Beginning Teachers. Administrators should make every effort to place beginning teachers in the subject matter field for which they are best prepared. Ideally, first-year teachers should not have more than two or three daily preparations. The beginning teacher's schedule should permit him to make detailed preparations for his classes and to evaluate carefully the results of his instruction. The policy of having a new or beginning teacher correlate his class preparation and teaching with that of an experienced member of the staff who is teaching a similar class works very well and contributes to a more rapid adjustment on the part of the beginning teacher. However, the beginning teacher's initiative and creativeness should not be discouraged by such an arrangement.

Community Assignments and Co-curricular Assignments. A little consideration on the part of the administrator when making out assignments will do much to keep the new teacher from becoming overwhelmed by his responsibilities. Community and co-curricular assignments should be kept to a minimum during the new teacher's first year. Since his first obligation is to teach subject matter, the beginning business teacher should be able to concentrate his efforts toward that end. As he adjusts to the new position and shows evidence of satisfactorily taking his new work in stride, he is then ready to assume additional responsibilities in the way of sponsoring school activities or assisting with community projects.

Assignment of "Buddy" Teacher. A procedure which has facilitated the satisfactory adjustment of new teachers in many schools is that of assigning a new teacher to a "buddy," "big sister," or "big brother." In this situation, a new teacher is assigned to an experienced member of the faculty; the "buddy" teacher has the responsibility of looking after the new teacher. It is highly desirable that a "buddy" teacher have a teaching field similar to that of the newly appointed teacher.

The advantage of assigning a "buddy" for the new teacher is that he is immediately identified with someone on the regular staff to whom he can go when problems or questions arise. Where the new teacher might be reluctant to go to the principal with a problem, that reluctance will seldom keep him from approaching a colleague. Another advantage to this approach to new-teacher orientation is that members of the regular staff are more closely involved with the orientation process; they feel a responsibility to help new personnel make the adjustment to a new job and new community. There is little doubt, also, that experienced teachers gain something from this relationship; such as, new insights for handling teaching situations.

The "buddy" system also has some disadvantages, which can be resolved by careful planning. The "buddy" teacher should be sympathetic to the problems encountered by new teachers; he should be known to have excellent ideas of how to take care of the school's routine matters, of handling community responsibilities, and so forth; and he should set an example of good teaching for the new teacher to emulate.

Handbooks or Orientation Manuals. Orientation handbooks or manuals have gained in popularity in recent years. These materials are designed to acquaint new teachers with many of the policies and situations in a school and community. Among other items, orientation manuals will usually treat such subjects as: the philosophy of the administration and faculty toward the educational procedures in a particular locality; the duties and responsibilities of certain administrative officers and special faculty personnel; procedures for determining the achievement of teachers; procedures for handling public relations; policies for handling matters of discipline; methods and procedures for determining and reporting student achievement; suggested procedures to be followed in making visits to students' homes; procedures for arranging for field trips, resource speakers from the community, and so forth.

Depending on the size of the educational unit, handbooks may also include information on such personnel matters as salary information, sick leave and other absence regulations, hospitalization plans available, and information regarding retirement provisions.

If handbooks or orientation manuals are used by a school, a policy of frequent revision should be adhered to in order that the information might be kept current.

Preschool Planning Sessions. The planning period that usually precedes the beginning of a new school year is an excellent time for new teachers to be brought together to discuss matters of vital concern to them. Teachers are excited about the impending beginning of classes, and newly appointed teachers have many questions that have not yet been answered. Numerous short meetings should be arranged with the new teachers to discuss such subjects as attendance procedures, classroom supplies, requisitioning procedures, grading system, textbooks, maintenance policy on machines, procedure for recording machine repairs needed, and so forth. These meetings of new teachers should be conducted periodically during the first two or three months of school for the purpose of discussing mutual problems and providing information on subjects of common concern. Administrators meeting with these groups could use the occasions to evaluate the success of the planned orientation program in providing needed information.

In-Service Workshops. In-service programs are used successfully by many schools to absorb new and inexperienced teachers into the system. Usually these programs take the form of workshops in which all of the teachers can be active participants. New teachers will generally bring enthusiasm, vitality, and youth to a staff which will tend to stimulate the entire faculty to re-evaluate their abilities, classroom procedures, and viewpoints. In the process of working together to solve a common problem, senior members on a faculty often review their own methods and objectives; as a result, new teachers and old have an opportunity to grow professionally through a cooperative sharing of ideas and methods.

School-Community Social Events. A new teacher in a school will usually represent a new population statistic in a community. The community has an interest in him; consequently, civic groups and lay citizens should become involved with the school's orientation procedures. In fact, a stimulating dimension is added to the orientation program by the participation of local organizations.

A teacher's happiness in his job is determined to a considerable extent by factors that are the concern of the community; such as, adequate and comfortable housing, opportunity to attend a church of one's religion, and opportunities for social activities. For this and other reasons, community leaders should be invited to become actively involved in the orientation program. Such persons could be instrumental in helping new teachers adjust quickly to the community by providing information about the community, assisting in locating suitable housing for teachers, and helping teachers locate community services essential to their welfare.

Many citizens are meeting their responsibility to help in the orientation of new and beginning teachers by working through civic organizations, such as the Chamber of Commerce or Kiwanis. A procedure frequently used by a civic group is to have as guests at a dinner meeting all the new teachers in a school system. Another commendable practice is to have small groups of businessmen and women serve as hosts in conducting new teachers on guided tours of a city or community.

Business-sponsored picnics or barbecues have been found successful because they provide a relatively informal atmosphere in which business leaders and new teachers communicate more freely and social barriers are less likely to inhibit the get-acquainted proceedings.

Whatever the procedure, the important thing is that the business and community leaders be involved and take an active part in helping new teachers become adjusted to a new community.

Most parents are vitally concerned about their children's education, and most are interested in knowing their children's teachers. A teacher's public image has long been regarded as an important factor in his happy adjustment to school and community. By involving citizens from the community in the orientation process, new teachers are able to begin early to build their public image.

Supervisory Bulletins. Periodic bulletins from the administrator's office and aimed primarily at the new teachers in a school will be well received by new teachers. Items of a helpful nature—such as the procedures to be followed during an impending examination week or a suggested agenda for parent-teacher conferences—will be especially appreciated by new staff members. With these bulletins, new teachers are reminded that the school system is looking after their interests, is anticipating their questions, and is attempting to help them handle the knotty problems that arise.

Classroom Visitations by Administrators. A policy of planned visitations to classes can be helpful to new teachers during their initial weeks in a new job. Beginning teachers especially derive much benefit from these visitations.

Considerable planning and counseling between the administrator or orientation team and the new teachers should precede the visitations. New teachers should understand thoroughly the purposes of the visits and be reminded that *all* new teachers are to be visited as a part of the school's orientation procedure.

Each visitation should be handled as a separate case, and the preparation and planning which precedes a visit should take into consideration the feelings and wishes of the new teacher to be observed. A procedure which has worked successfully in some schools is that of having a person on the orientation team (perhaps the high school principal) counsel with a new teacher about teaching problems that the new teacher might be having and for the principal then to ask if he might visit the teacher's class to observe a particular teaching-learning situation. With this arrangement, the new teacher knows approximately when his class is to be visited; he knows the classroom situation which the visitor is particularly interested in observing. The faculty observer should adhere to certain rules of courtesy when making the observations, such as to visit the class as prearranged, to remain in the class for only a short time, and to refrain from making written notes while in the presence of the new teacher. Following the visit, an early meeting with the new teacher should be arranged to discuss the observer's reaction to his classroom visit.

There will, of course, be numerous times when a principal or supervisor might enter the classroom of a new teacher; some of these could be planned, but mostly they will be of a spontaneous, spur-of-the-moment nature. From these "quickie" observations, an administrator is able to gain insights as to the teaching proficiency of a new teacher and the teacher's ability to establish rapport with his students.

As mentioned previously, new teachers should understand that the visitations are part of a planned program which involves *all* new teachers and in no way are the visitations to be regarded as spying or snooping or an indication that the new teacher is not doing a good job.

Observations of Experienced Teachers. New teachers, and especially beginning teachers, will usually welcome the opportunity to visit classes taught by older members of the school faculty. This procedure can be particularly helpful to the new teachers if the classes observed are the same as or comparable to those taught by the new teachers.

Such matters as making explanations, making effective use of the chalkboard, asking questions, giving illustrations, making efficient use of class time, developing good class discussions are but a few of the kinds of situations with which new teachers will be concerned; and their opportunity to see such problems handled skillfully by an experienced teacher can be instrumental in helping them make a more rapid and satisfactory adjustment to a new teaching situation.

Those classes observed should be taught by outstanding experienced teachers whose philosophy and teaching methods are worthy of being emulated by the new teachers. The regular staff members, in turn, will usually welcome the opportunity to have a part in the orientation of new teachers.

Spontaneous Social Gatherings of Fellow Teachers. The planned aspects of an orientation program are desirable and extremely important; however, the formal nature of many of these procedures will perhaps keep them from being as effective in some instances as might be desired. Many situations of an unplanned nature arise both during and after school hours, and these could well be as important—or even more important—in assisting new teachers to adjust to new environments. Informal situations such as coffee breaks and small-group picnics will go far toward helping new teachers to feel at home and relatively secure in new surroundings.

Faculty members in some communities invite into their homes for dinner or informal teas the new teachers on a school faculty. These are acts of courtesy which are practiced all too infrequently today, for the results can be highly successful and rewarding. New and beginning teachers welcome the opportunity to see fellow teachers away from their "professional stations," and new staff members seem to adjust to a new school situation and identify with a community much more quickly when these opportunities are present.

Many highly successful teachers will point to informal coffee breaks and "smokers" as the situations which contributed most to their happy and satisfactory adjustment to a new teaching situation. In the course of conversations at these informal gatherings, new teachers learn, among other things, how experienced staff members handle discipline problems, promote good pupil-teacher relationships, participate in community activities, and so on.

Evaluation of the Orientation Procedures. In order that an orientation program for new teachers might be continually improved, provisions should be made for periodic evaluations of the procedures followed. New and beginning teachers should be given the opportunity—in fact, should be encouraged—to react to the orientation activities with which they were involved. Through such a procedure, an administration may learn how successful it has been in providing for the individual needs of new staff members and to what extent certain important areas of orientation have been overlooked or treated too lightly. Through such a procedure, administrators are reminded of the situations, activities, conditions, and problems which are important to new and beginning teachers and which play such an important part in their successful introduction to new teaching and living situations.

The organized combined efforts of administrators, teaching staff, and citizens from the community undoubtedly have considerable influence in shaping the attitudes of new teachers toward the profession of teaching. The plans and procedures described earlier for orienting new teachers have been used successfully in many schools. However, it is doubtful that any procedure is more instrumental in causing new teachers to develop a proud, optimistic attitude toward teaching than that of a friendly, helpful school staff. Welcoming hands extended in friendship have been known to work wonders in the past. There is a very good chance that this friendly gesture will also work wonders today!

CHAPTER 28

The Future Business Leaders of America

Richard D. Clanton

If the young people of today wish to succeed at their jobs, it is important that they affiliate with youth organizations in which they may gain experiences in meeting the kind of local, state, and national problems with which they will be confronted in later life.

Youth organizations such as the Future Business Leaders of America (Phi Beta Lambda and College FBLA at the collegiate level) are providing experiences which young people could not possibly get in the average school class schedule. Organizations prepare young people to weigh problems, to study cause and effect, to offer solutions, and to assume responsibilities. They furnish experiences that will prepare young people to assume in an effective manner the responsibilities which they will be called upon to assume in adult life. To hear about and to read about responsibilities will not prepare a person for actual participation—he learns how to do things by actually doing them. Students need to learn how to operate an organization, how to prevent minority controls, and how to bring about desirable social, political, and economic changes by having the actual experiences.

PLAN OF ORGANIZATION

The Future Business Leaders of America is a national organization for students enrolled in business education subjects at both the high school and collegiate levels. The plan of organization includes local chapters, state chapters, and the national organization with headquarters at the NEA Center in Washington, D. C. All chapters are supervised by a sponsor and an advisory committee composed of business teachers, school administrators, and business and professional men and women who assume the responsibility for guiding the plans and activities of the chapters.

They said it couldn't be done back in 1937-38 when Hamden L. Forkner proposed the organization of thousands of business clubs in high schools and colleges. But, due to the determination and perspective of Dr. Forkner of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York, this organization was established. In 1940, the National Council for Business Education accepted sponsorship of the organization and appointed committees which inaugurated what has turned out to be one of the most significant youth groups in America.

The formative years of this organization took place during one of the country's most crucial periods—World War II. When an endeavor is worthwhile, however, even the hardships of war cannot stop its progress. The first chapter was organized at Johnson City, Tennessee, on February 3, 1942, and two days later another in St. Albans, West Virginia. Forty-one chapters were established in 1942. At present there are more than 2700 local chapters in high schools and colleges.

In 1946, the National Council for Business Education and the Department of Business Education of the National Education Association merged to form the United Business Education Association. At that time FBLA came under the sponsorship of UBEA (National Business Education Association after July 1, 1962), and has been one of its major activities since. One can readily see why, when he reads the purposes and the creed.

PURPOSES OF THE FUTURE BUSINESS LEADERS OF AMERICA

The Future Business Leaders of America organization seeks to:

1. Develop competent, aggressive business leadership
2. Strengthen the confidence of young men and women in themselves and their work
3. Create more interest and understanding in the intelligent choice of business occupations
4. Encourage members in the development of individual projects and in establishing themselves in business
5. Encourage members to improve the home and community
6. Participate in worthy undertakings for the improvement of business and the community
7. Develop character, train for useful citizenship, and foster patriotism
8. Participate in cooperative effort
9. Encourage and practice thrift
10. Encourage improvement in scholarship and promote school loyalty
11. Provide and encourage the development of organized recreational activities
12. Improve and establish standards for entrance upon store and office occupations.

ORGANIZING AND OPERATING A CHAPTER OF FBLA

Chapters of FBLA and Phi Beta Lambda should be the result of cooperative effort on the part of the business students and the business teachers. It should not be forgotten that the businessmen and women of our communities have been and continue to be most helpful in the Future Business Leader program, especially after the chapter is launched. In the state of Louisiana, much of the progress and growth of this youth organization have been due to the fine spirit of cooperation that has existed between the school and the community. There are few towns in Louisiana, large or small, where FBLA has not been a participant in cooperative projects with business and local civic groups.

For a successful chapter, there is no substitute for real enthusiasm on the part of the student, the business teacher, the businessman, and the school administrator. A sincere desire to be of service to one's co-workers, classmates, the school and community, and to prepare for the acceptance of greater responsibility forms a general background for organizing and operating a chapter of the Future Business Leaders of America or Phi Beta Lambda. Only the high schools and colleges that have been granted charters by the National Organization and are operating in accordance with the requirements of their respective state chapters and the National Organization are entitled to use the official name.

In addition to strong leadership at the state level, the local teacher must be interested. Of course, he must work, but the effects of that work can be profound. FBLA widens the teacher's horizons, motivates his students to do far better classwork, impresses his principal and patrons, and gives him such self-satisfaction that he has more than enough compensation for the additional work and time.

Then, a strong local organization needs to have interested students. It is up to every sponsor to exercise *all* of his imagination to find ways to help keep his chapter interested. Finally, there is the question of financing!

It can be seen, then, that FBLA, like any other worthwhile activity, takes *interest, work,* and *money.* Judging from the number of people who carry on chapters all over the United States and in Puerto Rico, the cost in money, work, and time, is certainly not an overwhelming barrier.

HOW TO GET AN FBLA CHAPTER STARTED

As given in the *FBLA Handbook,* the following basic suggestions are offered with the belief that they will aid business teachers and students in organizing and operating new FBLA chapters:

1. Use your present business club as the nucleus for a chapter of the Future Business Leaders of America or Phi Beta Lambda.
2. If no business club exists, talk to the students, to the principal, and to other teachers about the value of this youth organization. Select some of your outstanding students and discuss with them the merits of this national organization.
3. Write to the chairman of the FBLA committee in your state. If his name and address are not known, write to the National Office in Washington requesting a chapter charter application form, a sample chapter constitution, and the latest helps in organizing a chapter.
4. Study carefully the contents of the *FBLA Handbook* and materials you receive from the chairman of the FBLA State Committee and from the National Office.
5. Following evidence of interest for the chapter, appoint three or four enthusiastic students to serve as a nominating committee for offices for the new chapter. This will minimize the possibility of poor leadership.
6. When enough interest is aroused, announce the organizational meeting a few days before the date scheduled. Be sure to give publicity to the meeting.
7. At the organizational meeting elect officers and select temporary committees for assistance in completing the prerequisites to securing a chapter charter. Among the needs of the committee are constitution, projects, and membership.
8. Before writing the proposed constitution for your chapter, study the sample local chapter constitution, the constitution of your state chapter (if one is in operation in your state), and the national constitution.
9. Decide on a particular project which the chapter will undertake for the year or semester.
10. Submit the following items to the chairman of the FBLA State Committee, or if his name and address are not known, the items should be mailed directly to the FBLA National Office, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036:
    a. The application form setting forth the name of the school, name of the person in the school who is to act as sponsor, the names of the officers, and the name of the principal or administrative officer of the school

b. A copy of your proposed chapter constitution

c. A brief description of the projects which the chapter is undertaking

d. The charter fee of one dollar

e. A list of the charter members and the dues for each member. (The payment of the 50 cents a year dues for each member may be deferred to December 31 of the school year concerned. Application for charters mailed after December 31 should be accompanied by a remittance to cover the charter fee plus the 50 cents a member dues for the current school year)

11. Elect or choose chairmen for the various permanent committees.

12. Form an advisory committee of men and women from the local community to work with the members of the chapter. This advisory committee may be composed of at least one school official, and men and women from the service clubs, and prominent business and professional men and women. Members of the advisory committee should be persons who have a genuine interest in the welfare of young men and women and in their development as future leaders. Invariably, the invitation to serve on the advisory committee is accepted as an honor and with enthusiasm.

13. Meetings should be held at stated intervals during the semester or year. Plan a program or some activity for each meeting. Special emphasis should be placed upon the progress and development of the project or projects of the chapter.

14. Establish a method of recordkeeping for the achievement of each member as he works toward advancement in the chapter.

15. Keep a scrapbook containing newspaper clippings, pictures, and programs showing the progress and activities of the chapter.

16. Send a report of the progress and activities of your chapter to the National Office at the end of the year.

17. Become acquainted with the chapters in other schools. Chapters may wish to entertain or visit other chapters for the purpose of exchanging ideas.

Service, education, and *progress* are the key words inscribed on the national emblem. When the first chapters were organized, the *services* given by the groups to war service activities and community work connected with the war emergency and community defense plans were not only outstanding; they helped give impetus to the growth of the organization by showing how the youth of America could help when they were needed. Chapters all over the nation are giving untiringly of themselves to worthwhile community projects such as working at Tuberculosis Association Centers, for the Cancer Society, addressing envelopes for the March of Dimes, ringing bells for the Volunteers of America during the Christmas season, and distributing Thanksgiving and Christmas baskets to needy families. These types of activities help youth develop responsibility for good citizenship. These same groups help in their own schools by giving secretarial aid to teachers and assisting school personnel in clerical duties.

Education, the second word in the emblem, is certainly the primary purpose of schools and if it can be promoted through purposeful youth organizations it can be made more pleasant and meaningful. FBLA has definitely helped schools and businesses to have a better understanding of each other's problems. Businessmen give the students an insight into business through talks at FBLA meetings and by encouraging the members of the different chapters to visit offices and business establishments to see how business is really carried on.

Progress, the third key word, is noticeable whenever one sees FBLA groups at work. They help promote the prestige and growth of business departments. At this time, with science and mathematics being promoted through magazines, newspapers, principals, and guidance departments, FBLA is one of the best tools that business has to help insure interest in business in order to have enough people prepared to carry on necessary office operation and management.

The greatest contribution that leaders in business education can make is to prepare students for *leadership,* not merely for employment. The preparation of young people for positions of leadership is the chief aim of FBLA. The pages of history are filled with studies about men and women who have risen from the lowest economic ranks to become important figures in business—to name only a few: Andrew Carnegie, Henry Ford, John D. Rockefeller, Henry J. Kaiser. The success of these people is directly traceable to their well-developed leadership qualities.

It cannot be emphasized too strongly that young people with ability, initiative, imagination, good business education, pleasing personality, and training in leadership are in advantageous positions to advance to places of responsibility. For many years business teachers have been giving major attention to the technical preparation for holding positions in business, and many have neglected training in the leadership phase. FBLA is an organization that will furnish opportunities and experiences for young people to capitalize on other abilities and qualifications—particularly the potential abilities for leadership.

After the state organization was set up, FBLA in Louisiana experienced phenomenal growth. There were approximately 100 members and sponsors in attendance at the first state convention, 300 at the second, 600 at the third annual state convention, and 1700 at the thirteenth convention. The state is now divided into five districts and each year approximately 3000 of the FBLA-ers and sponsors attend these meetings.

This short sketch of FBLA history is given in the hope that some supervisor, principal, superintendent, or business teacher may get some idea of what can be done with a little work and enthusiasm. Many states along with Louisiana have witnessed considerable growth in this outstanding youth organization. Young people stand ready to work with youth organizations—all they need is direction. It is hoped that business teachers and administrators of business education programs throughout the nation will accept their responsibility in promoting this youth organization designed especially for their students. FBLA deserves the support of every supervisor.

PART 2

Administration and Supervision of Business Education In Colleges and Universities

CHAPTER 29

Administrative Problems of Business Education On the Collegiate Level

Lewis R. Toll

Administrative problems of business teacher education is the major concern of this discussion, even though there is a close relationship between business teacher education and education for business. To set the stage for this presentation of administrative problems, it is necessary to observe the types of organization for business teacher education which are most typical today.

Probably the predominant type of organization for business teacher education has resulted from the almost complete conversion of teachers colleges to state colleges or universities. In most of these schools, there is a school or division of business or business administration headed by a dean or a director. This school or division includes one or more departments of business administration as well as the department of business education. The department of business education may be devoted exclusively to the professional education of business teachers, or it may also include secretarial studies (as at Eastern Illinois University).

There are now very few state teachers colleges or universities where all of the business administration courses, the professional business education courses, and the secretarial courses are offered by the department of business education. Illinois State University, still dedicated exclusively to the preparation of teachers, is one of these universities.

In some universities, the department of business education is a part of the school of education, while in others business education is the joint responsibility of the school of business administration and the school of education. Secretarial studies may be offered by a department of either school. Business education departments within schools or divisions of education, however, seldom offer business administration courses. An exception to this generalization is Colorado State College, which has a department of business and a department of business education within the division of education.

A number of the major state universities, as well as many large private universities, have dropped secretarial education and business education from their schools of business administration. As a result, the state colleges which were once teachers colleges have assumed a greater responsibility in providing varied programs for business teacher education.

ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONS

The administrative problems to be discussed will be classified under the following functional divisions of administration for business teacher education:

1. Determining the major objectives of the business education department
2. Employing faculty members

3. Providing for the building, the equipment, and the supplies
4. Curriculum planning
5. Providing extraclass activities
6. Supervising the faculty
7. Guiding students
8. Conducting and supervising research
9. Maintaining good public relations
10. Helping to improve all types of business education.

Before discussing the specific administrative problems pertaining to these various functions, it seems necessary to call attention to the forces which are increasing the difficulty in solving these problems.

Administrative Problems Heightened by the Rapidity of Change. All of the problems of business education today are being made more difficult by the rapidity of change in economic, sociological, and philosophical forces. Making provision for change is the compelling problem which pervades nearly all of the administrative problems in each area of business education. Changes in business practices are being made so rapidly in this era of automation that the leading business analysts are not able to give us even a hazy picture of what the business scene will be like five or ten years from now. We do not know precisely what will be the nature of the duties and responsibilities in the majority of business occupations by the time today's high school freshmen or college freshmen get their diplomas. We are just as much in the dark concerning distributive occupations as office occupations. Increasing use of the digital computer is one of the forces which has been changing the patterns in large firms of all types. Maintaining unit control of the stock of a large merchandising firm by means of the computer is just as necessary as is the computer processing of data by a large manufacturer or investment house. The changing buying patterns of the public caused by higher incomes, traffic congestion, mass migration to suburbia, television advertising, and other forces have caused a rapid shift in the duties of retail store employees. For example, the major function of the most typical retail store has shifted from personal selling to helping management eliminate or reduce personal selling.

The business education faculty not only has the responsibility of keeping up with the changes in business, but they also share the responsibility of helping to bring about more rapid changes in business and business education. The need for changes in our entire public and private educational program has been so widely discussed in mass communication media during the last decade that nearly everyone has an opinion of what is wrong with the American schools. There has been a major shift toward more emphasis upon general education, particularly mathematics, science, and foreign languages; and this emphasis has placed utilitarian (personal use) education and vocational education on the defensive. At the same time, an army of unemployed persons has increased during an era of prosperity, and large numbers of these persons would be employable if they had some form of specialized training. This situation gave rise to the passing of the most extensive federal vocational act in our history. Now business educators on all levels have the responsibility of helping to plan for realistic and practical programs of the types specified in the bill.

Another administrative problem arising from changing conditions is that of providing for the unprecedented increase in the number of university students. While keeping up with the changing practices of business, the educator searches for the identification of the interacting forces which might be the cause for the changes. He tries to discover basic principles which might be involved.

Determining the Major Objectives of the Business Education Program. The purposes of business teacher education should be developed and continually re-evaluated by the entire business education faculty. These purposes should be stated clearly in written form; and copies of the statement should be on file in the faculty dean's office, the office of the business education department, and other offices of the university where they might be needed for administrative and publicity purposes. The statement should be a part of the complete report about the university which is customarily sent to its board of directors, to accrediting associations, and other organizations with an official interest in the university.

The statement of purposes of business teacher education should include the policies concerning the nature of the persons to be accepted in each departmental program and the types of positions for which each program offers preparation. The department might have a separate program for each of the following positions: junior or senior high school teacher, junior college teacher, college teacher, private business college teacher, and school business manager. The extent to which each program is on the undergraduate level should be specified. The different course sequences constituting a curriculum lane should be specified. On the undergraduate level in some state colleges, a student in preparation for secondary school teaching may choose any of the following sequences: secretarial education, business administration, distributive education, and comprehensive (which is in effect a combination of the others). The students in the comprehensive sequence usually are not required to prepare for a second teaching field in a department other than business or business education. What second teaching field the department should offer to students majoring in other departments is also a major policy matter which should be included in the brief statement of major purposes. The determination of these major policy questions should be a cooperative process in which all members of the department assist as committee members and as discussants at departmental meetings.

The statement of purposes of business teacher education should include a prediction of how the purposes might change during the next five or ten years. There is no problem in getting the instructional staff to assist in planning for the future as each faculty member wants to have some idea of what might be in store for him and what he should do to get further preparation for the opportunities and responsibilities which lie ahead.

An increasing number of colleges and universities are offering graduate programs in business education, some of them even leading toward the doctorate. Another trend is toward more special business education programs for college teachers and school business managers.

Employing Faculty Members. The steps involved in employing faculty members include the following:

1. Determining how many faculty members are needed
2. Deciding what will be the duties and responsibilities of the faculty members needed, and the salary range for each position
3. Getting authorization to proceed with the recruiting
4. Recruiting the faculty members
5. Getting all the necessary written data from the applicants
6. Communicating with the persons who know about the applicant and his work
7. Having an off-campus interview with the applicant, if possible
8. Having the applicant come to the campus to talk with members of the department and with the university dean
9. Having a final conference with the applicant which may or may not result in a provisional offer and acceptance
10. Making recommendation to the dean and awaiting approval (or disapproval) of the recommendation.

The business education department head may have several problems in carrying out some of these steps successfully. There is no difficulty in conducting the first step except to recognize that the university budget probably will not permit as many new faculty members as the academic departments think they need.

Considerable planning is necessary in deciding what will be the duties and responsibilities of the new faculty members. It may be that the number of different teaching subjects may be reduced for one or more staff members. There may also be shifts in the teaching assignments of existing faculty members that will make them more in line with their interests and abilities.

Of course, it is not desirable to have the new faculty members teach any assortment of courses which is left after meeting the desires and abilities of the present staff. In any case, the applicant should be told what the department will want him to do in the future as well as during his first year.

Recruiting desirable faculty members is a real problem today. The competition for the kind of instructors most departments of business education are looking for is great. It seems that all of the employing officers are seeking young men who have completed the requirements for the doctor's degree or have had at least a year of graduate work applying toward the doctorate. Other characteristics of the most successful candidates are: ability to get along well with all types of persons, pleasantness and enthusiasm, dedication to the teaching profession, a strong desire to excel, and a scholarly background and interest in at least one subject matter area as well as the ability to teach effectively in several fields.

Heads of departments of business or business education who have doctoral degree candidates are the best sources for names of possible candidates. Most of these administrators say they get many times the number of requests as they have persons to recommend.

Getting all the data needed about a business educator is not usually difficult. In addition to asking for several letters of recommendation, the employing official should talk with at least two persons who know the applicant intimately. This may often be done at a national or regional business education conference. It can always be done by telephone. The other steps in employing a faculty member present no major problems. In the entire process, some participation by the staff members with tenure is desirable, even if it is sometimes time consuming and cumbersome.

Providing for the Building Facilities, Equipment, and Supplies. Planning for a new building or for remodeling should be preceded by a prediction of (a) the future objectives of the business education department, (b) the predicted increase in student enrollments, and (c) the nature of the equipment and methods the department members would like to use in order to make the program up to date and effective.

The department head should not hesitate to let the general administrators know the department's enrollment predictions and the building facilities the department recommends. No problem is involved in getting the department members to assist in the broad planning for building additions and improvements.

As soon as the proposal for a new building or an addition has been approved, a special building committee will usually be appointed which should consist of the department head, one or more members of the department's teaching staff, one or more members of the general administrative staff, and the architect. In selecting the location of the building and determining its general shape, one of the considerations is adequate space for a possible addition to the building 5, 10, or 20 years hence. The location of future wings should be definitely decided and the space allocated.

Since it is likely, however, that the building now being planned will become overcrowded before it is enlarged, the building should be constructed so as to handle, with the least amount of difficulty, larger student enrollments than desired. Therefore, it seems desirable to have the classrooms large, and some of them should be large enough to provide for large lecture sections when the need arises. In every room there should be at least 32 feet from the outside wall to the corridor to provide for the best size and shape of rooms and to allow for alterations. A partition between rooms may then be taken out when a larger room is needed, or a partition may be added to make two rooms from a large one. The ideal business education classroom is one that is just a little longer from front to back than it is wide. The seats of small rooms may face the corridor wall, while this wall will be a side of a larger room. It is false economy to try to save money by specifying that the corridor-to-outside-wall width of rooms be 24, 26, or 28 feet.

Proper heating, air circulation, and air conditioning (in most sections of the country) are aids to the learning program and should be provided if at all possible. It is regrettable that many new classroom buildings are being constructed without provisions for an air circulation system.

Few universities have provided for enough office space in their new buildings to satisfy the faculty members. A private office of adequate size enhances the professional attitude of a faculty member, but it might be too expensive to provide enough offices in the new building to satisfy the desires of the staff that the building will house 10 or 15 years after the building is completed. There is the problem, then, of providing ways to accommodate the additional faculty, such as anticipating the need for removal of partitions. For example, the removal of a partition between two single offices may accommodate three persons adequately. One or more small conference rooms may be provided for private consultations between faculty members and students.

The following rooms are worthy of consideration by large departments where secretarial courses, business education courses, and business administration courses are offered:

> One or more accounting rooms equipped with individual accounting tables and the maximum of chalkboard space. The room may be used for other business administration courses.
>
> A distributive education room equipped with a large store window, a smaller store window, a wood and glass aisle counter with well for the cash register, a glass wall counter and wooden wall counters and shelves, and a bulletin board on which tie-in advertising (related to the merchandise on display) may be placed. The room should be large and equipped with tables that can be readily rearranged for committee work. Built-in bookcases and magazine racks are also needed in this room. The front of the room with the chalkboard and teacher's desk should be on the side opposite the model store fixtures so that the room may be used for classes other than those relating to distributive education.
>
> An electronic shorthand room with a console of several channels of tape recorders and a channel for the teacher's voice, and perhaps a record-player channel.
>
> A secretarial skills laboratory for practice only. This room may be equipped with continuous-play tape recorders distributed from the central channel to each combination typewriting and shorthand writing desk. The room may be used for practice in writing shorthand from dictation, in transcribing, in typewriting, and in secretarial practice. Skill practice from dictation in each of these subjects is a tremendous aid to learning.
>
> One or more typewriting rooms, with floor outlets for electric typewriters.
>
> A large office practice room which should provide for all the necessary office machines and still allow ample space for each student to work at such activities as filing, handling correspondence, and performing other non-machine projects.

A business data processing room to house integrated and electronic data processing equipment which might be shared by other departments and, perhaps, by some administrative offices.

One or more large lecture rooms to accommodate from 80 to 150 students. A collapsible, soundproof partition to separate two of these rooms would provide an auditorium-sized room for large meetings. Soundproof, collapsible partitions are now available that can be collapsed or extended by the turn of a key.

A room for the departmental library.

One or more small conference rooms and faculty offices.

A small kitchen and adjoining rooms for student and faculty lounges. These facilities might be shared with other departments.

Conveniently located restrooms, storage rooms, and janitor closets.

One of the big problems in planning a building is to determine the quantity, size, and shape of the classroom and office furniture desired before deciding upon the number, shape, and size of the rooms. This is to make sure that each room will meet all the needs and yet provide for the maximum utilization of all the space. Tentative floor plans for each classroom should be constructed and reconstructed until the desired furniture and fixtures fit the precise needs of the classes to be held in the rooms, with just the right amount of space for aisles, work tables, built-in fixtures, chalkboards and bulletin boards, and teaching demonstrations.

The floor plans for the classroom should indicate the position of every electrical floor outlet and wall outlet. In the case of the machine rooms and the electronic shorthand room, the lines to indicate the sub-floor conduits for the electronic dictation systems, electric typewriters, electric calculators, and the like should be drawn on the plans.

Preparing the Operating Budget for the Department. The administrative problems dealing with the preparation of the operating budget arise mostly from the difficulty of anticipating equipment and commodity items needed for the biennium which starts more than a year after the budget is prepared. In universities which prepare annual operating budgets only, the amount of guesswork is not so great.

The departmental operating budget usually includes equipment, commodities (supplies and teaching materials), contractual services (rental charges, maintenance costs, services of persons not on the university payroll and others), student help, and travel expenses of staff members. In all cases, it appears advisable to ask the individual faculty members what they would like to have in each of these categories with the stipulation that the budget will probably not be large enough to fulfill everyone's desires. Committees of the faculty should assist in the determination of the major items of equipment and supplies to be budgeted.

Selection of Equipment and Teaching Materials. The determination of the general nature of the teaching equipment and materials to be used should be made cooperatively by the faculty as a part of the planning for teaching methodology. Each instructor's suggestions should be considered, but items to be purchased by the department should be those that will meet the wishes of the majority of instructors who might have occasion to use them.

The actual selection of the specific items to be purchased is a time-consuming administrative problem requiring the reading of many catalogs, observation of equipment and commodities in exhibits held frequently in the larger cities, talking with company representatives who call with or without solicitation, conferring with the purchasing agent of the school, and so on. The responsibility of getting the most serviceable equipment with the money available is a great one. Securing competitive bids frequently results in lower prices, but it may also result in obtaining inferior items.

When competitive bids are necessary, the department head may still get the equipment or supplies he wants if he will write the specifications in great detail. In some cases this will limit the bidding to the goods of one manufacturer, but it might be arranged for the manufacturer's representatives to bid against each other.

Money may be saved by the department if the bids include the price after a trade-in allowance for an old or worn piece of equipment that may be only distantly related in function to the item to be purchased. Even though the bidders might "junk" the trade-in article, they may make a price allowance for it. This is especially true in the office machine field.

Frequently, the comparative merits of equipment items may be appraised only after actual observation or tryout. In these cases, several suppliers should be asked to leave samples for instructors to use and observe.

Curriculum Planning. A number of the problems of curriculum planning have been mentioned already as a part of the discussion of objectives. Once the department of business education has clearly defined its objectives and had them approved by the academic dean, the major scope of the curriculum planning has been indicated. If it is assumed that the types of educational programs for which the business education department has a special responsibility correspond with the nature of the positions for which students are being educated, the principal steps in curriculum planning are as follows:

1. Determine the desirable outcomes of the business education offered by each type of school (high school, junior college, and the like) for which the teacher education institution is preparing teachers.
2. Determine the characteristics of competent beginning teachers and master teachers in each type of business teaching position for which the teacher education institution is offering a program.
3. Estimate what the beginning students of each program of the business teacher education department or division already know about the subjects included in the program they will follow.
4. Identify the subject matter elements which should be included in the program.[1]

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[1] The NABTE Curriculum Study, now in its fourth year, is being conducted to help in this step. Its purpose is to identify and evaluate the subject matter elements of business teacher education.

5. Organize these elements into units of instruction and groups of study.
6. Determine the required and elective courses of study that constitute the business education phase of the program. (This is done for each program. The general education and professional education aspects of the student's preparation are, of course, determined cooperatively by the university as a whole.)
7. Put the program into effect.
8. Continually evaluate the programs to determine what changes need to be made.

Perhaps the most important part of a teacher education program is student teaching. While the course or courses in this activity are usually set up by the department or school of education, each subject matter department, such as the department of business education, may have the supervisory responsibility for the course insofar as its students are concerned. Providing for valuable experiences for the student teachers of business subjects in these schools is a very important and difficult problem of the business education department.

Planning and supervising a teaching participation program for graduate students of business education who are in the college teaching curriculum is a difficult problem which the business education department shares with the department or school of education.

Administrative problems may be found in other areas, such as providing for work experience programs involving the cooperation of stores and offices and directing the careful selection and use of methods and materials of instruction.

Providing for Extraclass Activities. The administration of extraclass activities in business education presents only one major problem, that of meeting the competition for the student's time. Study assignments apparently are requiring more of the student's time than was the case a few years ago, and many of the students are working to pay for all or a major part of their expenses. All of the social and professional activities not directly related to particular course work need careful planning and promotion to attract a large percentage of the students for whom the activities are intended. Business education block meetings, for example, have to be about important problems of interest to the members if they are to be well attended.

Every department of business education should have an honorary society for the upperclassmen who have superior academic standing. A separate professional fraternity on the graduate level is also advisable for large departments. The sponsors for both the departmental clubs and the honorary societies should be selected by a vote of the students, with some suggestions by the department head. It seems unwise to ask a faculty member to serve as a fraternity sponsor for many years in succession.

Special programs provided by the department such as business education conferences, guest lecture programs, and equipment demonstrations may be considered as extraclass activities for the invited students.

Supervising the Faculty. The problems of supervising the faculty of the department of business education do not differ in many respects from the supervisory problems in other areas of education or in industry. It should be kept in mind, though, that college professors enjoy their independence. They are cooperative because they recognize that being cooperative is an admirable trait. They are especially helpful to the department when asked to do something that is in line with their interests and abilities. Professors do not feel imposed upon when encouraged to demonstrate an effective method they are using in class, write an article based on pertinent observations they have made, or do further research in an area they have already explored. Professors enjoy working where their contributions are appreciated and where the atmosphere is one of good-natured, informal enthusiasm.

The staff members not only like to know what is going on, but they like to have a hand in it. That is why almost daily oral and written communication between the department head and staff members is a necessary supplement to the staff meetings.

Most faculty members are willing to serve on committees, especially when the committee functions seem important. However, they should not be called upon to spend a great deal of time in nonteaching activities if they have a full teaching load, and very few business education faculty members have reduced loads for the purpose of conducting research, assisting in administrative activities, or counseling. The increasing shortage of staff members in relation to the number of students and classes is one of the greatest problems in business teacher education.

Orienting the new teachers to the job is a problem since it comes at a time when the department head and other supervisors are very busy. Nevertheless, it is too important to be neglected. Visitation of the new teacher's classes should take place after the first few weeks, and a consultation should be had with the new teacher to find out how well he is adjusting to the job and the community.

The evaluation of teachers is, perhaps, the most important part of supervising the faculty, especially in universities with merit rating programs. The criteria for teacher evaluation should be in written form. Each teacher should be told about his strong points and about areas in which he could improve.

The department's recommendations for appointments, promotions, and tenure should be made by the department head with the assistance of a departmental committee. A great deal of care is necessary in preparing for the interview with each staff member to inform him of his salary for the next year. The general policies of the university with regard to typical increases for persons in each rank may be discussed previously in the staff meeting, but it is necessary to tell each staff member the reasons for the amount of his salary for the next year having been set at a given level. It is much better to tell him in person than in writing.

Guiding Students. Guiding students is a responsibility which the academic departments share with the general administration of the university. This points to the obligation of the business education department head to make sure that his faculty members are thoroughly aware of all of the policies and practices of the university's general personnel practices regarding recruitment, counseling, and placement of students. The faculty should encourage their students to make full use of these services.

The academic departments, however, should also provide special guidance services to their own students. Setting up the organization for these services is a major problem of the department head. One plan is to have a few staff members serve as special assistants. Each assistant could be assigned a large group of the majors of the department, for example, all the freshmen. These counselors may actually approve the students' programs each semester. Every faculty member could be asked to counsel the students of his classes who want to go to him for advice on any problems other than the actual determination of their programs of courses. All of the students should know that the department head would be glad to talk with them about any of their problems.

Among the administrative problems in the guidance field are deciding what tests to give for assistance in scheduling the students and administering and interpreting these tests. The department, for example, might use tests in typewriting, shorthand, business mathematics, and accounting to provide additional data to determine at what level the beginning students in these areas should start.

Conducting and Supervising Research. The principal administrative problems in conducting and supervising research in business education are similar to those of other teacher education fields. They involve stimulating and assisting with the research activities of the faculty members and the students of the department in such activities as

1. Cooperative research projects of state, regional, and national associations in the field.
2. Working with other academic or administrative departments of the university in performing studies of significance to the entire university.
3. Conducting individual research projects in line with the faculty member's or student's specialty.

All graduate faculty members should have teaching load adjustments to allow some time each semester for research. He should have to make periodic reports on his research studies. When the budget does not allow for lightening the load of all graduate staff members every semester who have definite research plans which are approved by the department head and the faculty or graduate dean, they should be given a light teaching load while they are conducting the research. It is sometimes difficult to get the graduate faculty members to encourage capable graduate students to write theses instead of meeting alternative requirements for completing master's degree requirements and therefore to serve as advisors or graduate committees.

Disseminating the results of research studies done by faculty members and students is a real problem because if the job is done right, it is one which requires a considerable amount of time. Furthermore, it is one of the things an administrator can easily postpone because of the pressure of other duties. Therefore, it is probably advisable to make one of the graduate faculty members a coordinator of research activities.

Maintaining Good Public Relations. The problems of maintaining good public relations are numerous as they pervade every phase of business teacher education. It would not be feasible, therefore, to attempt to list them here. Very few of those problems are peculiar to the department of business education. It should be pointed out, however, that it is necessary for this department to do all it can to present business teacher education in a favorable light and to counteract the unfavorable publicity that is common in publications, on radio, and by other media about programs involving some training in specialized skills, as contrasted to general education.

Helping To Improve All Types of Business Education. With the exception of the collegiate schools of business, all types of schools offering business education programs look to the faculties of the business teacher education departments to help them make changes in programs and methods to keep up with the progress of business, society, and educational philosophy. Leadership activities of this kind involve providing consulting services; staging business education conferences for administrators, teachers or students; scheduling workshops and clinics; and arranging for special exhibits.

Today, more than ever before, it is the obligation of business teacher education departments and divisions to work with national, regional, state, and local organizations to promote the numerous types of business education programs which are needed to provide for a higher rate of employment, for more effective management of personal finances, and for greater recognition of the individual's citizenship and social responsibilities. It follows then that the administrators of business teacher education need to enlarge their job image and the scope of leadership activities.

CHAPTER 30

The Administration and Supervision of Business Education on the University Level

William C. Himstreet

Until the late 1940's, universities usually offered both undergraduate and graduate work, and other levels of higher education usually limited their offerings to undergraduate study. Now, many colleges provide graduate degree work. Frequently, schools have dropped the name "college" and replaced it with "university." However, there is much more than a mere semantic difference between the "university" and other levels of higher education. To establish a distinction, the functions of a university must be considered.

FUNCTIONS OF A UNIVERSITY

In business and in education, administrative methods have broad applications. Within the framework established by the purposes or functions of a university, an administrator must adapt his methods. In America, universities have basically four functions:

1. Teaching—the dissemination of knowledge
2. Research—the creation of knowledge
3. Publication—the dissemination of knowledge
4. Preservation—the storage of knowledge (library function).

The research, publication, and preservation functions provide the university with its uniqueness and also mark the university as a major multipurpose social institution.

Teaching is always a primary purpose of any educational institution. The outcome of teaching is learning. Within this platitudinous statement is a frequent criticism of the university: "The teaching is poor." Because of the emphasis given the other functions, perhaps the criticism can be rationalized. Professors become involved in research and publication; graduate fellows and teaching assistants teach in the undergraduate program; and classroom performance is seemingly given a minor place in the scheme of things.

The emphasis on functions other than teaching creates administrative problems unique to the university. A university can be accused of attempting to be all things to all people. Because of this accusation, many universities limit the scope of instructional fields in an attempt to do only those things which can be done well. As a result, business education or business teacher education must participate fully in the total university program to justify its existence.

CURRICULUM PROBLEMS OF BUSINESS EDUCATION IN THE UNIVERSITY

Perhaps the first area of administrative problems is curriculum development. Interwoven in curriculum considerations are the problems of accreditation in business content areas, relationship of the business subject area to the professional education subject area, selection of faculty, and the evaluation, promotion, and compensation of the faculty.

Undergraduate Curriculum Considerations. In higher education, the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business is the major accrediting body for business programs. Most universities stressing strong programs in business are members of AACSB. As a result, the teacher education programs in business may become poor relatives of the stronger business administration areas.

To qualify for membership, colleges and universities must meet rigid curriculum and faculty requirements. For example, more than one-half of the undergraduate courses in business must be taught by full-time faculty with terminal degrees in their teaching fields. The percentage is higher for graduate courses in business.

While it is considered a terminal degree for the teaching of methods courses, the doctor of education degree has not been considered a terminal degree in the skill courses. Thus, the problem of whether to offer the skill courses in the school of education or in the school of business becomes a major consideration.

Another critical problem, of course, is caused by faculty members and administrators who believe skill courses in shorthand, typewriting, and machines have no place at the university level. Therefore, two primary administrative plans are used in business teacher education.

One is the centralization of the business teacher education program in the business school. Skill courses and specialized methods courses, including supervision of practice teaching, are offered by full-time teachers in the school of business. Other professional education courses are taken in the education school. This plan has the advantage of centralizing authority and responsibility in one school. Staffing, scheduling, and budget considerations are simplified. Also, student advisement is localized.

The other plan can be called the "split-appointment" plan. All business subjects, including skill courses, are offered by the school of business. Subjects pertaining to education are centered in the school of education. Under this plan, the teaching faculty has responsibilities in both schools. Infrequently, the business faculty will teach the skill course; and the education faculty will handle the methods and practice teaching program. In a small number of schools, typewriting and shorthand are offered as "business education" courses and housed and taught in the school of education.

Administratively, the split plan in one form or another has been used by business deans to minimize skill subjects in schools of business. Recent critical reports imply that skill subjects have no place in the school of business.[1]

The success of either plan depends primarily on the persuasiveness of the business education chairman and the relationship he fosters between himself and the administrative deans. As a result of the pressures exerted on the business education program by accrediting bodies and education critics, the university curriculum in business education, to be "respectable," probably will continue to place less emphasis on skill courses and will begin to look more and more like business administration programs.

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[1] Gordon, Robert A. and Howell, James E. *Higher Education for Business.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1959. 218 p.

Graduate Curriculum Considerations. Recent changes in state certification requirements indicate that business teachers in the secondary schools will soon be required to complete five years of college or university work before being granted certificates. In many states with higher salary scales, requirements that include graduate work are already in effect. With prospective teachers coming through strong programs in business administration, many undoubtedly will want graduate degrees in business to accompany their teaching credentials. Three possibilities that follow present themselves at the master's degree level:

1. Work primarily in education leading to the master's degree in education
2. Work primarily in education leading to the master's degree in the subject matter field
3. A degree program incorporating graduate work both in education and in business but without the specialization permitted when the work is primarily in one school.

AN APPROACH TO CURRICULUM PROBLEMS

As a result of the university environment, the following problems constitute the major administrative concern in the area of curriculum: (a) What preparation for high school business teaching can the university provide? (b) Should education for business teaching be a primary responsibility of the school of education or the school of business? (c) How can teachers be prepared at all in such schools if the trend toward elimination or reduction of undergraduate work in education and skill courses continues?

A rather controversial position will be taken here as a step in the solution of the first and third problems. The university can prepare business teachers by providing first a strong program in business administration and then building the necessary teacher education program on that foundation. A corollary of this position is that "what" a person is going to teach is at least as important, if not more so, than "how" he is going to teach. Both the "what" and the "how" are necessary. Teachers are made, not born. For these reasons, the major educational institutions must assume a responsibility for teacher preparation.

To accompany this stand and to achieve effective teacher education, methods instruction must be improved. If a student teacher has acquired satisfactory typewriting skill, a good methods instructor can do more for the student in a true graduate course than the student can do for himself in two or three more typewriting courses. In other words, a business administration student who can typewrite can be taught to teach typewriting. The same can be said of all business subjects in the secondary school. Therefore, responsibility for business teacher education should be a joint one.

The undergraduate program in business administration should be the students' primary concern in those states where five years will be necessary for teacher certification. In the fifth year, the student should concentrate on developing teaching ability. The additional year of maturity can be a valuable one.

In education the term "maturation" is used constantly. Yet, the profession of education frequently asks an undergraduate to assume the task of learning to teach in classrooms in which he is scarcely two or three years older than his students. To emphasize the point, why are higher standards and longer formal preparation required of dentists than teachers?

As the teaching profession increases in stature, it must require a professional preparation to justify itself. Business teachers must be as well prepared as businessmen. Are they? Many programs stressing "education" have not required business teachers to obtain a solid foundation in the tool subjects and functional area foundations of business. Therefore, many business teachers are unable to understand and interpret economic principles and problems sufficiently so that their students can appreciate the things that make a private enterprise system prosper.

In answer to question two, therefore, it can be seen that when the business teacher program is located in the school of business, a stronger emphasis on content or business administration usually is possible. Provided no diminution in the skills and methods areas is entailed, a stronger teacher education program is likely to result. In any case, an effective teacher education program is contingent on adequate provision for proper relative emphasis on general education, professional education, professional business education, and content in business administration. When this provision is met fully, the situs of the business teacher education program is not too important.

The business teacher education program given below is one example of an undergraduate curriculum with fairly heavy emphasis on content, which is located in a school of business administration, with AACSB affiliation:

Business Teacher Education Curriculum
Leading to the B.B.A. Degree

Freshman Year	*Qr. Hrs.*
Freshman Composition	10
Introduction to Mathematical Analysis	10
Political Science	5
Behavioral Science	10
American Economic Development	5
History of Western Civilization	10
Physical Education or ROTC	5
Sophomore Year	
American or European Literature	10
Laboratory Science	10
Principles and Problems of Economics	10

Sophomore (*continued*)	*Qr. Hrs.*
Principles of Accounting	10
Business Communications	5
Physical Education or ROTC	5
Junior Year	
Corporation Finance	5
Business Law	5
Principles of Management	5
Principles of Marketing	5
Principles of Statistics	5
Education—10 hours	
Foundations of Education	5
Human Growth and Development	5
Senior Year	
Major Field—30 hours	
Beginning Shorthand	3
Intermediate Shorthand	3
Shorthand Speed Building	3
Advanced Dictation	3
Beginning Typewriting	2
Intermediate Typewriting	2
Advanced Typewriting	2
Office Machines	5
Secretarial Office Practice	5
Office Management	5
Methods in Teaching Business Subjects	5
Education—20 hours	
Educational Psychology	5
Methods and Materials for Teaching in High School	5
Apprentice Teaching	10

STAFFING PROBLEMS IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

What makes a good university teacher? The answer to this question is basic to effective staffing practices. Because a teacher must perform in an environment in which the four functions of teaching, research, publication, and preservation of knowledge are paramount, the good university instructors will demonstrate ability in these areas. Not all teachers can be skilled researchers and writers in addition to being competent classroom instructors. However, the administrator must start with these criteria in selecting his faculty.

An administrator must select a faculty of individuals whose strengths complement each other. The good researcher, the good classroom teacher, and the author of teaching materials and textbooks can work together to build a strong program both at the undergraduate and graduate levels. All should be concerned with the library function. "Well read" is a description that should be applicable to the entire faculty.

The university administrator should design work loads to take advantage of the strengths of his faculty. Research, writing, and teaching should be equated in terms of salary and promotion. Faculty members have many complaints in this area of recognition. Research and writing are the visible, measurable contributions. Teaching ability is often an intangible. Yet, there are some approaches to the problem.

Essentially, an administrator should be able to judge good teaching. This requires that he develop an appreciation for the teaching process so that he can appraise others effectively. To a certain extent, an administrator can supervise his teachers. Classroom visiting or supervision should be looked upon as a means of improving instruction. Even exchange visits among instructors is practiced in some colleges and universities.

RESEARCH RESPONSIBILITIES

Business education has golden opportunities to combine the teaching, research, and writing functions. The very nature of the field—stimulating subject matter combined with a study of ways to present it to students—leads to experimentation in education. More and more research is reported each year by graduate students and faculties in business education. Much more, however, can be done. The following is a partial list of experimental areas which should be of concern to business education, particularly at the university level where research is a primary function:

1. Improvement of classroom techniques in both skill and non-skill courses
2. Development of improved practice teaching programs
3. Strengthening of economic education
4. Evaluation of graduates
5. Summer business internship programs for students
6. Evaluation of prognostic tests and aptitude tests in business and education
7. Evaluation of the effectiveness of new teaching devices and materials in business administration subjects
8. Development of "methods" seminars for university level business educators.

PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

In addition to such experiments, the administrator in business education should encourage his faculty to participate along with himself in professional responsibilities. Membership in and participation in the activities of the various business education associations is an obligation which most administrators accept. Professional responsibility, however, goes beyond that. Noneducational associations, community service, consulting services, and simply telling the story of business education to laymen are obligations to be encouraged within reasonable limits. Only in these ways can we assure ourselves that we are not talking only to ourselves. As the most highly regarded educator, the university professor has an obligation to make his knowledge available beyond the confines of his school and his profession—the final test of good administration and supervision.

CHAPTER 31

The University Business Education Curriculum

Arnold C. Condon

Business education on the state university level is characterized by uncertain beginnings, an inglorious development, and a precarious future. It is now facing probably its most critical challenges—perhaps even the challenge of survival. The beginning of business education was no less pretentious than was that of education in other fields, except for the unique feature of a dual birth! One part was spawned in the college of education, the other part in the college of commerce or the collegiate school of business.

When colleges of education were developing teacher education curriculums in various teaching fields, it was natural that they should consider the inclusion of business teaching. Many colleges of education, however, do not teach the subject areas and instead rely on other colleges, especially liberal arts colleges. Since business education is a vocational area, a problem arose about providing the necessary preparation in secretarial skills for prospective business teachers. Usually, one of the following plans evolved:

THE DEVELOPMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

1. In some colleges of education, the precedent of offering subject matter instruction had already been established, sometimes even in such vocational areas as agriculture, home economics, or industrial arts. Consequently, instruction in typewriting, shorthand, and related courses became a function of the college of education.

2. In other universities, the collegiate school of business offered an executive secretarial curriculum. In such cases, the college of education might rely on the sister college to provide skill training.

3. In still other universities, no skill courses were offered. Teacher certification was established through proficiency examinations covering work taken in high school or in private business schools.

4. A fourth plan, closely related to or combined with plan three, offered skill training without credit through a cooperative arrangement with the university high school, a local public high school, or a private business school.

Plans three and four are obviously the least desirable. Yet Gordon and Howell, in their published judgments,[1] advocated abolishing skill courses in universities, sending students "to the business school for needed basic courses," and certifying them on the basis of proficiency examinations.

DEVELOPMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION IN COLLEGIATE SCHOOLS OF BUSINESS

Traditionally, collegiate schools of business have not been enthusiastic about business education. In a few universities there has been a genuine endeavor to prepare top-level business teachers; in others, skill training has been given grudgingly. The fact that business teachers are expected to teach typewriting and shorthand has been accepted as a necessary evil.

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[1] Gordon, Robert A., and Howell, James E. *Higher Education for Business.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1959. 218 p.

Business education at the state university level hit its peak during and immediately following World War II when there was a tremendous demand for business teachers and office workers. Later, after the top of the pendulum swing was reached, reaction naturally followed. The reaction was intensified when world history stepped in to alter educational concepts. With the advent of the Russian sputnik, near hysteria prevailed. The whole nation seemed to decide that our educational system was a failure. Of course, a need was revealed for scientists, mathematicians, and engineers. The proposed solution was greater emphasis on general education courses with a corresponding decrease in the so-called practical vocational courses.

Some of the extensive criticism was undoubtedly just. Perhaps we were overstressing the vocational. But some of the criticism definitely was unfair. To make a bad situation worse, large company grants were awarded for so-called scientific studies of education in the collegiate schools of business. Opinions highly derogatory to specialized training were given the status of scientific fact. The statements of Gordon and Howell, referred to previously, are examples of such opinions. Such statements are taken at face value and are used as justification for eliminating or curtailing skill training. Once one or two schools make a move, more are sure to follow. How serious this trend may be remains to be seen. As a prelude to assessing the future, let us review the status of business education at the present time.

PRESENT STATUS OF BUSINESS EDUCATION ON THE STATE UNIVERSITY LEVEL

To obtain reliable information about the status of business education in 1963, the writer made a survey of the 36 old-line state universities holding membership in the National Association for Business Teacher Education. Returns were received from 30, or 83 per cent, of the schools. It should, of course, be recognized that what the universities are doing currently is not necessarily the best that can be done.

HOW IS BUSINESS EDUCATION ORGANIZED IN STATE UNIVERSITIES?

In 64 per cent of the universities responding, a separate department, most often called the Department of Business Education, administers the work in business education. The next most popular title is Business Education and Office Administration. In 57 per cent of the universities, the work is offered in the School or College of Education; in 39 per cent it is offered jointly by Commerce and Education. The important element in all arrangements is cooperation between the two colleges in developing the best possible program.

WHAT CURRICULUMS ARE OFFERED?

Business education on the collegiate level is not limited, as many people think, to business teacher education. Other curriculums are offered by the department of business education in a number of universities. As would be expected, the business teacher curriculum was found to be the most popular. All of the universities reported such a major, and 50 per cent offer a minor in this field. The second most frequent curriculum is the executive secretarial or secretarial administration curriculum (43 per cent), usually offered in departments in which business education is included in the college of commerce. The third most frequent curriculum is the office management or office administration curriculum (27 per cent), also offered most often through business education in the college of commerce. The fourth and last curriculum listed was the two-year secretarial curriculum (14 per cent). Responses indicated that this curriculum is being hurt by the development of junior colleges and by prejudice against a strongly oriented vocational program.

WHAT ARE THE UNDERGRADUATE COURSES MOST OFTEN OFFERED?

Fifty courses in business education were listed in the survey. Departments located in colleges of commerce tend to offer a wider variety than do departments in colleges of education. The following listings include all courses offered by the departments of business education, not just those required for business teacher certification.

Typewriting. Typewriting is offered by all but one of the universities. Two semesters are offered by all these schools, with two credits most commonly given, although three credits are given by a number of schools offering only one year of typewriting. Two schools show the influence of de-emphasizing skills and give no credit for beginning typewriting. No university reported zero credit for second semester typewriting. A third semester of typewriting, usually carrying two credits, is offered by 61 per cent of the schools. One university reported having a fourth semester of typewriting, and another reported a personal typewriting course with no credit.

Shorthand. Two semesters of shorthand instruction are offered by all but the one university not offering skills; three semesters of shorthand instruction are offered by all but two schools. Three credits are most often given, with two and four credits reported by a few schools. In a few schools, beginning shorthand carries more credit that do subsequent courses. A fourth semester of shorthand is offered by 65 per cent of the universities. As many as five or six semesters, including specialized courses, were reported in some cases.

Office Machines. The third most popular course is office machines. Practically all the schools offer at least one course with three credits. Several offer a second course. A few departments located in schools of business have introduced data processing, with one school offering two courses in this field.

Secretarial or Office Practice. Eighty-two per cent of the universities offer courses called secretarial practice, secretarial problems, or office practice. Most schools allow three credits. Seven schools provide a second-semester course.

Office Management. Seventy-four per cent of the universities offer office management as a business education course. Five offer an advanced course.

Business Communications. Business communications or business letter writing is offered by 41 per cent of the universities. Only two offer report writing.

Records Management. Thirty per cent of the universities offer records management. This course generally is offered by departments which are in the college of commerce.

Miscellaneous Courses. In most universities, methods and student teaching are listed as education courses, though the work is sometimes offered as a part of business education. General methods (11) and principles of business education (9) are the most frequent titles, supplemented by a variety of specialized methods courses. Nineteen separate titles were reported, plus a wide array of courses in distributive education was reported by one university.

THE UNDERGRADUATE BUSINESS TEACHER CURRICULUM

Much has been written about the credit allocated to general education, commerce, business education, and education. Herbert A. Tonne says that at least 60 hours should be in general education, 42-48 hours in business subjects (including skills), and at least 18 hours in education. The survey results indicate that the majority of universities are not observing these standards.

General Education. Credit in general education ranges from 14 to 70 hours. On the average, it is divided approximately as follows: language arts, 12; natural science, 10; social science, 10; humanities, 8; physical education, 4.

Professional Business Education. Although methods and student teaching are classified by some universities as business education courses, this study classifies them as education; and this section is concerned with the skills and related areas such as office and records management. Credit in these areas ranged from zero to 42, with an average of 24 credits.

The Business Core. The number of courses given and the credit allowed for the business core varies considerably. Generally speaking, a heavier commerce concentration characterizes business education in the college of commerce. Credits range from 12 to 45, with 30 credits the average, in contrast to Dr. Tonne's recommendation of 42 to 48 credits in business subjects including the skills courses.

All the universities require accounting in the business teacher curriculum and most of them require economics and business law. Business letter writing is required in the business core of 19 universities; and management, marketing, and finance were reported as requirements by one-half of the universities Other required courses, reported by fewer universities, include statistics, data processing, geography, and other miscellaneous subjects.

Education. The range in education requirements is from 11 to 33 credits with 23 the average, as compared to Dr. Tonne's suggestion of 18 hours Thirty-five different course titles were listed, the most common offerings being general methods, student teaching, and educational psychology.

EFFECT OF CURRENT GENERAL EDUCATION EMPHASIS

The survey responses to this question indicate that the current emphasis on general education has had some effect on departments of business education, particularly those organized as a part of the college of commerce

Although 16 respondents feel there has been no effect or only slight effect, four feel there has been "considerable effect," and four look for future changes, in contrast to nine who do not anticipate additional changes. One respondent wrote, "The damage has already been done." In one university, the business education program was moved recently from the school of business to the school of education. In another, all skill training has been discontinued, and certification is on the basis of proficiency examinations covering preparation received in high school, business college, or junior college.

EXAMPLE OF A REVISED CURRICULUM

Limitations of format preclude discussion here of curriculums in selected universities for distributive education, secretarial administration, and office administration, including automation. For detailed consideration of a general business teacher education curriculum, currently revised, this section presents the curriculum proposed for the University of Illinois after a two-year study begun in September 1960. The study was initiated partly as a result of the Ford and Carnegie Reports, for the purpose of providing adequate education for business for the future—not just for the present. The revised curriculum of the College of Commerce and Business Administration, to become effective in 1964, is as follows:

	Sem. Hrs.
I. University Requirements	
Rhetoric and Composition	6
II. College—General Education Requirements	
Business Writing	3
Speech	3
Logic	3
Mathematics	7
Advanced Economics	6
One sequence in each of the following areas:	
Humanities, Science, or Advanced Mathematics	8
Social Studies	7
History or Political Science	6
Literature	6
Minimum hours required in I and II	55

	Sem. Hrs.
III. Business Administration and Economics Requirements	
Principles of Economics	6
Economic Analysis	3
Accountancy	9
Statistics	6
Finance	6
Marketing	3
Management	3
Business Law	3
Total required	39
IV. Field of Concentration and Free Electives	38
TOTAL (exclusive of basic Military and Physical Education)	132

The limitation of 38 semester hours allotted to the field of concentration and free electives is adequate for the secretarial administration and office administration curriculums but, with the heavy education requirements, it makes a tight program in business teacher education. Rather than ask for special consideration to reduce commerce requirements because of education course requirements for certification, or reduce the skills area to less than that of the executive secretary, the business education department conformed to the col lege specifications. The business teacher curriculum permits few electives an necessarily will eliminate some minors. Admittedly, it is a difficult program The skills courses, while not numerous, assure a high level of proficiency (The goal at the end of three semesters is 140 WAM dictation speed with corre sponding high-level skills in transcription, typewriting, and office machines.) The education core is the same as that required in all other teacher curriculums

Following is the proposed business teacher curriculum:

	Sem. Hours
First Semester	
Accountancy	3
Rhetoric	3
Science	4
Mathematics	4
Philosophy	3
P.E.	(1)
Military	(1)
	17
Second Semester	
Accountancy	3
Rhetoric	3
Science	4
Mathematics	3
Ed. (Nature of Teaching)	2
Speech	3
P.E.	(1)
Military	(1)
	18
Third Semester	
Accountancy	3
Economics	3
Business Letter Writing	3
Psychology	4
Beg. Typ. or Elective	2
Records Management	2
P.E.	(1)
Military	(1)
	17
Fourth Semester	
Economics	3
English	3–4
Marketing	3
Management	3
Int. Typ. or Elective	2
Beg. Shorthand or Elective	3
P.E.	(1)
Military	(1)
	17–1
Fifth Semester	
Ec. (Statistics)	3
Economic Analysis	3
Ed. (Foundations)	2
Adv. Typewriting	2
Int. Shorthand or Elective	3
Data Processing	3
	16
Sixth Semester	
Ec. (Statistics)	3
Adv. Economics	3
Finance	3
Pol. Science	3–4
Office Machines	3
Adv. Shthd. or Mktg. Elective	3
	18–1
Seventh Semester	
Ed. Psychology	3
Bus. Ed. Methods	5
Ed. (Student Teaching)	5
Prin. of Sec. Education	2
Ed. (Pre-Observation)	(2)
	15–
Eighth Semester	
Pol. Sci. or minor	3–
Business Law	3
Adv. Economics	3
Finance (Money & Banking)	3
History	3
English	3
	18–1

WHAT ABOUT THE FUTURE?

Business education, as well as other areas, is subject to change in the future. Some changes may be foreseeable, others unpredictable. High school curriculums are in the process of change, and further changes will be desirable in the preparation of business teachers.

It appears that teachers of typewriting will continue to be in demand. Shorthand instruction should continue, though a trend may develop to upgrade some of the instruction to the junior college. The need for teachers of basic business and economic education should increase. For adequate preparation, additional training in economics would include such courses as economic problems of the family, economic aspects of home management, consumer economics, and studies in investments and insurance.

Apparently, there is an increasing need on the high school level for coordinators of cooperative office and distributive education. Cooperative training is believed to be one of the solutions to the ever present problem of school dropouts. There is, of course, a question as to how many part-time workers business can absorb, particularly in periods of recession. Nevertheless, administrators should be alert to the possibilities of cooperative training, and teacher education colleges should develop strong programs for coordinators.

It is not unlikely that some business teachers may be expected to teach subjects such as machine shorthand, key punch, or other phases of automation on the high school level.

The junior college movement will continue to grow. Although curriculums on the junior college level have not been clearly defined, business education is almost certain to flourish. Perhaps this is the place where secretarial administration in general will advance most. Here also, specialized secretarial curriculums may show development.

Increasingly popular on the junior college level are curriculums in junior accountancy, distributive education, business machines, data processing, and others. There is a need to supply business teachers for these areas. In too many cases, high school teachers have been promoted to positions in junior colleges without proper preparation. Colleges responsible for preparing business teachers face a challenge in providing appropriate instruction and retraining of teachers for junior colleges.

There are several phases of business education on the state university level that should be considered carefully to make certain that responsibilities are met. There seems to be justification for curriculums in the secretarial area in spite of the severe criticism of skill training on the university level. For some time to come, there will likely be a need for skill teachers on the high school and junior college levels. If these teachers are to be well prepared, reliance must not be placed on proficiency examinations for certification. Skill training on the university level should be of such a high caliber that no prior training could possibly serve as a substitute.

A recent study of office personnel, made by the writer, disclosed a demand for college-educated secretaries and administrative assistants. High schools and other schools can provide instruction for the lower-level positions; but for the top positions, only high-level skills, together with broad general and business administration courses provided by a university can do the job properly. To provide the time required for the general and business administration courses needed, skills must be taught to a higher proficiency in less time.

Universities should be continuously responsive to potentialities of investigation and innovations in business teaching pertaining to new areas in automation, such as data processing, paper work management, machine teaching of business subjects, and others still to be developed.

Although only 7 of the 36 universities responding to the questionnaire survey offer a curriculum in office administration, this is an area which probably should receive more consideration. Office administration is becoming a profession—one in which men to the most part predominate. (In one city, 89 per cent of the large membership in an office management association is men.) Where do these office administrators receive their training? Few of them have had special training in office administration.

Through specialized curriculums and adult education, the universities can be of distinct service to personnel in a variety of business activities when the needs are discerned. Perhaps our biggest challenge is to recognize the emerging needs in business education.

CHAPTER 32

Administering the Graduate Program in Business Education

Mearl R. Guthrie

Each year more colleges and universities initiate graduate programs in business education. Some colleges and universities are dropping their undergraduate program in business education and concentrating their efforts strictly at the graduate level. In the future, there will be a growth in both of these major trends because (1) more states are requiring five years of education for high school business teachers, (2) more high school business teachers are needed due to growth of our high school population and due to a significant increase in business education course offerings, and (3) new community and junior colleges will increase the need for business education teachers with graduate degrees.

TYPES OF GRADUATE PROGRAMS

Programs in graduate business education need to be constantly evaluated in relation to the changing needs of our society and in relation to research in the area of teacher education and business education.

At the present time, there is not a consensus as to what constitutes a good graduate program in business education. Some business educators believe the graduate program should emphasize a broad, general background while others believe that the master of business administration degree program is a good fifth year education for high school business teachers and some college business teachers.

Another approach to the graduate program in business education is the master of education degree, with or without a thesis. The master of education degree usually requires an "outside" minor. The decision of whether or not to write a thesis is difficult for the student, at least. A major "roadblock" to the thesis at the master's level is faculty time. With the existing shortage of qualified faculty members, it is doubtful there is enough faculty time for all master degree candidates to write a thesis. A second "roadblock" to the thesis option is the lack of willingness on the part of students. A third "roadblock" is whether or not a thesis is more important than additional course work or practical research. There seems to be some consensus among business educators that a student who plans to work on a doctorate should write a thesis, while one who does not contemplate additional graduate work should do a field project or research project closely related to his classroom teaching.

As examples and for comparison purposes, the requirements for the Master of Education Degree, Plan I and Plan II, and the Master of Business Administration Degree, Plan I and Plan II, at Bowling Green State University are listed on the following pages:

MASTER OF EDUCATION DEGREE

The master of education degree is designed to enable a student to achieve a high level of professional competence in educational service, especially in the public schools. See the major field description for any additional requirement. Each student's course of study is planned individually with an adviser under one of the following plans:

Plan I. The provisional certificate or one full year of teaching experience is required for admission.

A candidate under Plan I will present an approved major of 18-21 semester hours, including a formal thesis, and a minor of not less than 9 semester hours in a minimum 30 semester-hour degree program of graduate study. Plan I constitutes the preferred program for the student who expects to continue graduate study to the doctorate in education.

The student shall pass an oral examination on the thesis.

Plan II. The provisional certificate or one full year of teaching experience is required for admission.

The approved course of study shall include a major of 18-21 semester hours, a minor or related field of 9-12 semester hours, and 3 semester hours in research procedures in a minimum degree program of 33 semester hours. An interdepartmental major may draw upon two or more fields instead of having a major and a minor.

Satisfactory achievement on a written comprehensive examination is required. The examination may be taken when the student has achieved a minimum grade point average of 3.00, has satisfactorily completed a course in research procedures, and has completed sufficient work to obtain the permission of his adviser, but not less than 15 semester hours of credit. The examination includes:

a. An advanced test in education.
b. An examination on the major area.

The comprehensive examination charge of $5 must be paid at the time the application is filed.

Any student who fails in the comprehensive examination may, upon recommendation of his adviser and the approval of the Dean, be granted permission to take a second examination. Upon failing a second examination, the student is to be dropped from Plan II of the Master of Education Degree Program.

MASTER OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION DEGREE

The basic objective of the master of business administration degree program is to qualify men and women for creative leadership in an increasingly complex and dynamic business society by enlarging their knowledge, managerial skill, vision, and perspective. The broad, integrated curriculum provides the candidate with an understanding of the major facets of business operations. This four-fold program includes work in the theoretical and historical foundations of business, quantitative controls and research methodology, decision-making through the development of advanced functional skills, and the social environment of business. Throughout the program, candidates must appraise logically the social, political, and economic implications of business decisions. An opportunity is also provided for a moderate degree of specialization.

The program is designed to serve graduates from recognized colleges of business as well as graduates in liberal arts, science, engineering, or other fields desiring to

> undertake professional studies in the area of business administration. It will be terminal for some graduates, but others will go on and pursue doctoral study.
>
> The time required to complete the M.B.A. program will vary from one to two academic years. For students who have had little or no previous work in business administration or economics, two years may be required. Students who have majored in business or economics may be able to complete the degree program in one academic year.
>
> Each student will be required to take the ETS Admissions Test for Graduate Study in Business.
>
> Each applicant will have to submit evidence that he has an appropriate academic foundation for this program. This foundation includes the completion of academic courses in economics, accounting, statistics, finance, marketing, business law (or the legal environment of business) and management in an accredited institution. If the candidate has not completed prerequisite work in these areas, additional courses will be prescribed by his adviser.
>
> *Plan I.* Each candidate under Plan I will include the following in his degree program: the core courses GBA 501, GBA 502, GBA 511, and GBA 565; two of the functional fields listed on page 58; a formal thesis; and sufficient electives to make a minimum of 33 semester hours of 500-level work. This option is recommended for those students who expect to continue with graduate work to the doctorate.
>
> The candidate shall pass an oral examination on the thesis.
>
> *Plan II.* Each candidate under Plan II will include the following in his degree program: the core courses GBA 501, GBA 502, GBA 511, and GBA 565; three of the functional fields listed on page 58; and sufficient electives to make a minimum of 33 semester hours of 500-level work.
>
> Each candidate shall pass a comprehensive written examination on the courses included in his degree program.

A master of business education degree permits almost complete specialization in business education subjects and the teaching of these subjects. The doctorate degree is growing in importance. It is sometimes loosely spoken of as a "union" card in college teaching. A significant number of high school business teachers are completing a doctorate program. Many high schools give additional financial recognition to those teachers with a doctorate. For example, in Ohio, during the school year 1964-65, 87 cities, 15 exempted villages, and 71 local school districts have provisions for increased pay for teachers who take advanced training beyond the master's degree. Of course, practically all school districts give additional pay for the master's degree. In Ohio, one-third of all the districts in the state recognize the doctorate for pay purposes and another one-third recognize the master's plus 30 hours.

A college or university considering a doctoral program in business education must decide on one of three approaches—the doctor of philosophy, the doctor of education, or the doctor of business administration.

The doctor of philosophy program is the most widely accepted, but it has the serious limitations of a narrow range of courses and a foreign language requirement. The doctor of education program is probably more practical for a business education teacher, but it is not considered "academically acceptable" at some educational levels. The doctor of business administration program is gaining in acceptance, but it is more ideally suited to teaching in a college of business administration and working in business.

CHOOSING THE PROGRAM

In choosing a master's or doctor's degree program, a business education faculty must carefully consider many factors.

1. Should a graduate program concentrate on methods or content? Many graduate students want more courses in how to teach. James Conant has suggested that we eliminate methods courses at all levels, including the undergraduate level. In some large universities, a general philosophy prevails that, "if you know it, you can teach it."

2. What is the administrative placement of the department of business education? If the business education program is located in a particular college within a university, it may have to choose the graduate program that agrees in principle with other graduate programs in the college. If the business education department is a separate department within a college, it may be able to develop a unique graduate program.

3. What is the background of the faculty in the department of business education? Obviously, for a business education department to offer a graduate program, it must have a strong faculty. The majority of faculty members should have advanced degrees. If the department is considering a doctoral program, the majority of the faculty should have a doctorate. The graduate degree program offered by a department should be closely related to the type of graduate program experienced by most of the faculty. It might be difficult for a faculty to offer a doctor of philosophy program if most of the members of the faculty hold a doctor of education degree.

4. What are the opportunities for those who receive an advanced degree? The business education faculty should choose a program that will be acceptable to most of the employers of the graduates. If the employers of the graduates are emphasizing vocational business education, then more vocationally oriented courses should be offered. Perhaps the graduate program should be ahead of the existing curricula in the schools that hire its graduates. All too frequently, graduate programs are accused of being too much behind the times. If many of the graduates of the program are to become junior or community college teachers, there should be additional emphasis on this phase of graduate study. On the other hand, if the graduate program is located where there are few community or junior colleges, there should be less emphasis placed on this area of education. With the highly mobile teacher population that exists in the United States today, perhaps the graduate curriculum should be developed on a national basis rather than on a regional basis. Of course, the ideal graduate program would be one that is "tailor-made" to each individual student's needs and aspirations.

5. What are the state certification requirements in business education?

In some states the certification requirements above the bachelor's level are very general; in others, they are quite specific. Some universities require a graduate degree in the area in which the person teaches. There is a growing trend to require a high school teacher to have an advanced degree in his teaching field rather than a graduate degree in an area not related to his teaching field. For example, many male business teachers have been pursuing graduate study in school administration just in case they have an opportunity to become a school administrator. Many business teachers pursue a graduate program in guidance because some states offer higher pay for guidance teachers, and the Federal government has been subsidizing the program. If the business education graduate program is located in a geographical location where it must compete with school administration, guidance, and other graduate programs, it must be made competitive with such programs. If the graduate program is located in a geographical region where most of the schools require that a teacher have an advanced degree in his major teaching area, competitiveness is not as important.

6. Does the graduate program selected meet minimum requirements of accrediting associations? It is very important that the graduate program in business education meet or even exceed the accreditation requirements of the regional accrediting associations, the basic college or university requirements, the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business (if the business education department is located in a member school), and other accrediting organizations.

ORGANIZATION OF THE CURRICULUM

The success of a graduate program in business education depends largely on how the curriculum is organized and administered. The first step in curriculum development is to study the needs of the student who will be in the graduate program. If many of the students come from the same college or university's undergraduate program, one type of curriculum is needed. One approach in determining the type of curriculum needed is to study the curriculums of graduate business education programs in other colleges and universities. This study will provide some background information. It is not necessary, or even advisable, that a new program be copied from another school. It may be that the needed program will be a combination of selected factors from many schools.

The problem of requirements and elective courses is a difficult one. Undoubtedly, there will be some courses that should be required of all students, but generally these should be few in number. It is best to choose the courses that will help a specific student reach his educational objectives within the framework of the specific and general graduate degree requirements.

There is considerable controversy over courses offered for both graduate and undergraduate credit. In many cases, the graduate student merely writes an extra paper in an undergraduate course if enrolled for graduate credit.

In the beginning, it may be necessary to have such "dual" courses when there is a limited number of graduate students in the program. Graduate courses should be different from undergraduate courses and not just more of the same knowledges and skills that were developed at the undergraduate level.

All the graduate courses in the university must be carefully studied so that those which will contribute to the graduate business education program can be used. One of the purposes of any graduate program in business education should be to help the student gain an appreciation of other fields of education. This appreciation is best accomplished by encouraging business education students to take some courses in other graduate fields.

A Suggested Curriculum. The ideal curriculum in a graduate business education program would include methods courses, content courses, problem courses, general-education type courses, and research courses which will give the student an opportunity to experiment with different methods of teaching.

Other things that might be included in a graduate program are additional student teaching experiences at the high school level, intern teaching at the college level, actual business experience, opportunities to work with outstanding business educators, and participation in the professional organizations in business education.

Admission to the Graduate Program. Quality should always be the first word in the development and operation of a graduate program. Admission requirements in our graduate schools are tending to become more demanding. These admission requirements are usually based on undergraduate grade-point averages and the results of certain tests which may or may not be valid and reliable for the purpose.

If a graduate program is developed as a service for high school business teachers, an argument could be made for admitting any high school business teacher regardless of grade-point averages and test scores. After all, most teachers will continue to teach with or without a graduate degree. If the primary purpose of a graduate degree is to prepare a more effective teacher, it seems questionable for educators to exclude teachers from the graduate program because of low grade-point averages or test scores. Perhaps the teacher has matured since the undergraduate work was completed and will do much better academically during his graduate education. Any teacher with an undergraduate degree should be given an opportunity to prove himself at the graduate level. For example, he might be required to make 12 hours of B or better during his early graduate education. As the demand for graduate education increases, admission policies will have to change. The business education faculty should consider all facets of the admission problem before reaching a decision on admission policy.

Where there are state standards concerning admission or college standards concerning admission, it is easy to pattern the business education graduate admission policy after such standards. Actually, the business education faculty should "fight" for the admission standards that they believe will improve the teaching of business education at all levels.

Another admission problem is concerned with graduate work immediately following the granting of the bachelor's degree. There are certain arguments in favor of requiring teaching experience before a person can pursue a graduate program in business education. On the other hand, some students may not have the opportunity to get a graduate degree unless they enroll in the graduate program immediately following the granting of the bachelor's degree. Also, state certification may affect the admission policy if the state requires a graduate degree for the renewal of a teaching certificate.

FACULTY AND GRADUATE ASSISTANTS

Faculty assignments at the graduate level constitute a real problem to the administrator. In some departments, all members are qualified and want to teach graduate courses. Graduate teaching can be assigned on a seniority basis—permitting the senior teacher in service and rank to teach the graduate work. However, the administrator should consider the value of having several teachers in the graduate program. This procedure permits the graduate student to benefit from the philosophy and background of several teachers rather than from only one or two teachers. A basic question concerning teacher assignment which might be considered is—does a graduate student get a better education from two business educators teaching eight graduate courses or from eight business educators teaching one course each. In any event, graduate teaching assignments should be made on the basis of the skills, knowledges, and abilities of a specific teacher. Variety for variety's sake would be ridiculous in any educational program. The qualifications of the teacher should always be a primary consideration in teaching assignments.

Graduate assistants are valuable to a business education program for a number of reasons. (1) The stipend paid to the graduate assistant may make it financially possible for him to pursue graduate work. (2) The graduate assistant can gain valuable teaching and research experience which will benefit him during graduate seminar classes and during the rest of his teaching career. (3) Graduate assistants help ease the serious teacher shortage in many colleges and universities. By using graduate assistants, it is possible to extend educational opportunities to more students than would be possible if only regular faculty members taught classes.

SUMMARY

There are many facets to be considered in the administration of a graduate program in business education. The major considerations in the establishment, development, and operation of a graduate program are:

1. The need for a program. Perhaps some business education departments in our colleges and universities should concentrate on the undergraduate level and others on the graduate level. Many departments need

both if they expect to attract and hold qualified faculty members. Teaching graduate students seems to indicate more status to some people than the teaching of freshmen in college. The decision concerning the establishment of a graduate program in business education should be based primarily on the need of the geographic area served by the college.

2. There are many types of graduate programs at the master level (five years of college); the specialist level (six years of college); and the doctorate level (seven plus years of college). A business education faculty should develop a graduate program that best meets the needs of the students. Of course, this program must be developed within the framework of state certification requirements, accrediting agency standards, the philosophy of the college or graduate school in which the department is located, and the size of the potential program.

3. The type of graduate program chosen will affect the organization of the curriculum. If possible, the courses within the graduate curriculum should offer the student a balance of offerings in content, methods, research, teaching experience, business experience, and general education.

4. The admission policy of the graduate program needs careful consideration. If the graduate program is designed to help the student become a more effective teacher or a more successful business person, it might be questionable to choose graduate students strictly on the basis of grade-point average and test scores. If the graduate program is designed as a beginning professional program, then the admission policy might contain higher admission standards. Of course, the admission policy must reflect the standards set by the college and accrediting associations. The grade-point average, test score admission policy is easiest to establish and administer, but it should contain some exceptions for those students who request admission and do not meet the grade-point average, test score requirements.

5. The selection and development of a graduate faculty and the use of graduate assistants may be the key to a successful graduate program. A competent faculty that is understanding of student needs will help the program grow in number and in stature. The judicious use of graduate assistants will help the graduate program grow and may extend educational opportunities to undergraduate students that would not be available otherwise.

The administration of a graduate program in business education is difficult and continuous, but very rewarding. The satisfaction of helping graduate students do a more competent job in their chosen field is sufficient reward for the work involved. Any decision concerning the development or modification of a graduate program in business education is of major importance to the success of such a program. All possible alternatives of each problem facing the departmental faculty should be considered carefully before a decision is made.

CHAPTER 33

Administration and Supervision of Business Education In State Colleges of Education

Louis C. Nanassy

State colleges of education, including state teachers colleges, each year graduate more beginning teachers of business subjects than do any of the other types of institutions of higher learning. How well the departments of business education in state colleges perform their function of preparing business teachers depends in a large measure on the breadth and quality of the administration and supervision of business education in these colleges. The purpose of this chapter is to identify and discuss some of the more important administrative and supervisory functions of the head of the department of business education in state colleges of education.

IMPORTANCE OF THE CHAIRMAN

Hardly anyone would deny the importance of the need for having highly qualified and effective department heads in secondary schools as well as in colleges. It is doubly important that those responsible for the administration and supervision of teacher education programs in colleges measure up to the highest standards of performance. The very existence, improvement, and success of secondary school business education in any geographic area depend to a considerable extent upon the ability and leadership of the head of the business teacher education department in that area.

An able and effective department head will develop a teacher education program that will prepare quality business teachers, who in turn are likely to promote strong business programs at the high school level. A weak teacher education program, on the other hand, may graduate marginal and mediocre teachers, thereby influencing adversely the business education offerings in the secondary schools. Therefore, it is quite clear that the head of the state college business education department and his teacher education colleagues largely determine the kind of teaching in their service area for many years to come.

It should be emphasized that many administrative and supervisory duties and functions performed by the chairman of a business teacher education program in a state college of education may be similar to those faced by other department heads, both on the secondary school and on collegiate levels. Further, it must be recognized that state colleges of education vary so greatly in organization, size, programs offered, financial structure, and many other significant aspects that generalizations about them may be hazardous.

DUTIES OF DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN

Although the heads of business teacher education departments in state colleges perform many functions similar to those that other chairmen and department heads are called upon to do in high schools, business schools, and colleges, there are certain functions which are inherent and somewhat unique to business teacher education programs.

What are the duties of business education department administrators? The following check list includes functions which should be performed by almost every department head, and certainly by those persons responsible for administering and supervising business teacher education programs.[1]

Functions of a Department Head

- A. General Administration
  - 1. Check the departmental program with the objectives of the school
  - 2. Participate in the building of the master program of the school
  - 3. Prepare teaching schedules
  - 4. Coordinate the activities of the department
  - 5. Coordinate the business department with other departments
  - 6. Act as liaison officer between the business teachers and the administration
  - 7. Prepare the departmental budget
  - 8. Select supplies and equipment
  - 9. Supervise care of equipment and general housekeeping
  - 10. Keep records and prepare reports
  - 11. Analyze records to determine which ones are really needed
  - 12. Participate in the total guidance program
- B. Supervision and Improvement of Instruction
  - 1. Curriculum and instructional
    - a. Develop appropriate curriculums
    - b. Assist in the building of a program with continuity
    - c. Participate in studies and investigations for the improvement of education
    - d. Provide for adequate supplementary reading and library materials
    - e. Guide and supervise the testing program
    - f. Make job analyses, lessons, and the like
    - g. Encourage experimentation
    - h. Select and evaluate textbooks and other teaching materials
  - 2. Teacher improvement
    - a. Conduct group and individual conferences with teachers
    - b. Help the teachers on special problems
    - c. Assist teachers with planning
    - d. Exemplify superior teaching
    - e. Arrange for demonstrations
    - f. Visit classes
    - g. Prepare and assist new teachers in their work
    - h. Become acquainted with teachers
    - i. Stimulate high-level scholarship
    - j. Evaluate the tests of teachers
    - k. Investigate unsatisfactory achievement and do something about it
    - l. Provide for an audiovisual aids library
    - m. Protect teachers from unreasonable demands of the public
    - n. Build positive morale among the staff and students

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[1] Adapted from Freeman, M. Herbert, and Nanassy, Louis C. "Unique Functions of the Head of a Business Education Teacher-Training Program." *National Business Education Quarterly* 16:25-32, 58; December 1947.

C. Guidance Activities
    1. Provide for adequate guidance
    2. Select and classify students
    3. Evaluate previous training of transfer students
    4. Supervise testing and prognosis
    5. Follow up on failures
    6. Assume discipline responsibilities
    7. Organize and direct co-curricular activities
    8. Promote student morale
D. Professional Relations
    1. Encourage professional growth
    2. Build prestige for the department and staff
    3. Keep teachers informed of developments
    4. Hold membership in educational organizations
E. Business Relations
    1. Encourage "outside" contacts on part of teachers
    2. Arrange for student visits to business and industry
    3. Organize cooperative work experience programs
    4. Participate in placement and follow-up
    5. Engage in constant curriculum revision in light of job analyses
    6. Obtain realistic teaching aids from business
    7. Enlist cooperation of businessmen and organize advisory committees
    8. Have contact with business and businessmen through membership in service clubs and organizations
    9. Provide advisory services to small business in the community for the improvement of business organization and management.

The general administrative functions of the department head in a state college of education will vary considerably from college to college, depending upon the size of the college, size of the department, and a number of other variables. The chairman's background and competence as well as the needs of the college will, of course, determine to what extent, if any, he will share in administrative responsibilities beyond that of his department. Some chairmen may be called upon to participate in developing the master schedule of the college; frequently, they are involved in details on how the business courses fit in with the master schedule.

PREPARATION OF THE SCHEDULE

One of the responsibilities often assumed by the business education department chairman in a state college of education is that of preparing the teaching schedules each term or semester for his departmental faculty. This should be a democratic and cooperative process with active participation of all the members of the business education staff. Common sense dictates that faculty members shall be scheduled to teach those courses for which they are best qualified and in which they have the greatest interest.

Although variety is desirable in one's teaching load, effort should be made to assign teaching schedules that call for a reasonable number of different subject matter preparations. If it is within the province of the chairman, consideration should also be given to the time of day each person's classes will meet. Too many consecutive classes on one day, late afternoon or evening classes one day followed by an early class the next morning, excessive free hours between classes, and other hardships or undue inconvenience should be avoided whenever practicable. The chairman should see that less favorable teaching assignments, time schedules, and extraclass responsibilities are not given repeatedly to the same one or two persons, but are shared on a rotation basis by all members of the department.

COORDINATING ACTIVITIES AND LIAISON

Coordination of the activities of the business teacher education department may pose no special problems for a relatively small department. As a department develops in size and scope, however, it becomes the responsibility of the department chairman to administer the department so that conflicts in curricular and co-curricular activities are avoided. Not only must this coordination be planned within the department, but consideration must also be given to coordinating the departmental activities with those of other departments of the college. Although this is not the exclusive responsibility of the chairman, he may have to set up procedures to assure satisfactory results.

For example, the department may sponsor two or more student clubs, fraternities, or other business and professional groups. Faculty advisers of these departmental organizations should work together and plan the activities of their respective student groups so that conflicts in programs and schedules will be at a minimum. The use of a master schedule for programs and special meetings of the various departmental organizations will prove helpful. All business education faculty members should be invited and encouraged to participate in as many student activities of the department as possible, and schedules for these functions planned in advance will facilitate participation of the faculty.

The larger the school, the more likely it will be necessary for the department head to act as liaison officer between the teachers in his department and the college administration. As with other areas of administration, accepted and understood procedures relative to channels of communication will prevent the occurrence of certain problems. This is not to say that all business education staff contacts with the dean, president, or other administrative officials of the college must go through the chairman; but it does make sense to channel most matters, and especially those of a routine nature, through the department head.

BUDGET RESPONSIBILITIES

Considerable variation among colleges exists in the business education chairman's involvement in budgeting matters. Some department heads are responsible for submitting and, after approval, supervising the spending of all departmental allocations. In other state colleges much of this task is handled by the business manager or financial office of the college.

Virtually all business teacher education department chairmen will have something to do with the budget. Frequently, they may be limited to making recommendations to the fiscal officers of the college on what the department needs in the way of new equipment, funds needed for repairs and maintenance of present equipment, purchasing of new library books, travel funds for faculty use, and other departmental items.

An effective, comprehensive program for the preparation of business teachers requires an adequate amount of up-to-date equipment and appropriate facilities. The chairman of the department has the prime responsibility to determine what is needed, where it can be obtained and at what cost, and to see that the requests are included in the school budget. Here again, a wise administrator will consult all the members of his department and welcome their suggestions and assistance.

PLANNING FOR EQUIPMENT

An alternative plan to buying office machines is to rent them from manufacturers or distributors. This policy assures the college of using late models of the machines rented, with no repair costs. Perhaps the main disadvantage of this plan is that in time the amount spent for rentals will more than equal the cost price of the equipment. The chairman will make recommendations after studying and considering the matter.

Every effort should be made to keep all the equipment of the department in the best working condition. Some colleges have all of their office machines serviced during the summer vacation. At that season, the repair men are not so busy, and for a nominal fee every machine can be put in first-class condition.

Funds are more likely to be forthcoming for various types of business equipment if those who control the finances are convinced that there is a definite need for what is requisitioned and that the equipment will be utilized fully if obtained. An important task of the department chairman, therefore, is to make sure that appropriate and wise use is made of the equipment and facilities in his department.

For long-range planning the business department should project its equipment needs over a period of five years or more. Preparation of such a master plan would indicate in advance what should be done each year in replacements, trade-ins, servicing, and acquiring of additional equipment and facilities.

THE TEACHER EDUCATION CURRICULUM

Much activity has been in evidence in colleges and universities in recent years regarding curriculum revision. The results of the revisions have not always favored business education—in fact, some existing programs have been curtailed sharply or eliminated. The chairman of a state college department of business education should be concerned with curriculum problems in his department and also with those of the college's program as a whole.

It is expected that graduates of the departments will do a highly creditable job in teaching the traditional high school courses of bookkeeping, typewriting, and shorthand. They should also have more than adequate preparation to teach the various basic business subjects and to prepare high school students for clerical office positions as well as for entry into the field of distributive occupations.

Additionally, a new dimension must receive serious attention in the business teacher education program—the increasingly important area of automation in business and industry. Through one or more courses (such as Introduction to Electronic Data Processing), visits to modern offices with EDP installations, and participation in automation workshops and conferences, every pre-service teacher of business subjects must be exposed to experiences that will help him do justice to his responsibilities as a teacher of young people who will be affected by automation.

As with many other areas of professional activity, development and changes in the business education program must come about through cooperative effort. This calls for the active involvement of staff members, the college administration, graduates of the department, representatives of schools in the service area, the state department of education, and others who have an interest in the business education curriculum of the college. The head of the department must assume a vigorous leadership role in reviewing and improving the business teacher education program of his college.

Another function of the chairman is to represent the department on the curriculum committee of the college as a whole. In this capacity, he is confronted with the dual challenge of interpreting his program to the other departments of the college and also working toward the offering of some business education on a required or elective basis for students who are enrolled in curriculums other than business education. Possible courses falling into this category would be those that develop business-economic appreciations and competencies and skill courses such as personal typewriting, office machines, and perhaps some abbreviated writing system.

RECORDS AND REPORTS

It is inevitable that certain records be maintained and be readily available for use in a business teacher education department which functions effectively. A typical departmental file will include individual folders for each staff member, correspondence with applicants for teaching positions, memorandums received and carbons of memorandums sent out, and budget information. Cumulative records relating to students in the department will occupy an important place in the files of the department. To encourage full utilization of these data for guidance, placement, and other purposes by faculty and other authorized personnel, records must be accessible and kept as up to date as possible.

Even though the college may have a central teacher-placement office, the business education department will also find it desirable to maintain its own file on job openings, referrals, placement, and followup of its graduates. Calls are likely to be received from public school officials and other hiring agencies for business teachers with experience as well as for the current class of graduates, and the chairman of the department should have information at his finger tips to assist him in making sound judgments and recommendations concerning all his graduates.

Among the many other kinds of materials that should be within easy reach of the chairman and his staff are price lists and descriptive catalogs of book publishers and distributors of supplies and equipment. These brochures and booklets must be current to be of value and to justify space in the files. As new catalogs and price lists are received, they should replace the old ones in the files.

It would be highly desirable for the chairman to take time out to review the departmental files. The typical departmental files are likely to be cluttered with materials that have outlived their usefulness, and these materials should be disposed of periodically.

Annual reports are commonly required of the chairman by the college administration. Throughout the year, the chairman should accumulate data he is likely to use for these reports. Each college will have its own suggested format and contents. Among the items usually included in the reports are enrollment statistics; placement of graduates; reports of departmental activities; writing, speaking, and other professional contributions of the faculty; plans for the future; and other important topics that should be called to the attention of the president and dean of the college.

RESEARCH AND EXPERIMENTATION

The head of the state college business teacher education department does not have to be an expert in the field of educational and business research, but it is highly desirable that he have considerable familiarity with research techniques and that he be research oriented. He should lead the way in initiating meaningful and significant action research and also stimulate and encourage his teaching staff to engage in experimentation. To achieve this objective, adjustments may have to be made in the teaching assignments of the faculty members doing research and other necessary arrangements may have to be made to guarantee the success of the research projects. When these research efforts point the way for modifications in curriculums, changes in existing procedures, or improved methods and materials in teaching, every consideration should be given to implementing the research conclusions and recommendations.

Textbooks and teaching materials used in any college course should be evaluated and selected by the instructor teaching that course. There are good reasons, however, why this selection should be the result of department-wide deliberation and action. When two or more instructors teach the same course, or when a course is part of a sequence of several courses, all the instructors involved should have a voice in selecting textbooks and other teaching aids. The chairman should assume some responsibility in assisting his staff in making wise decisions and in seeing that general agreement is reached in the selection of these teaching materials.

Related to the evaluation and selection of basic textbooks and other materials to be used in classes is the provision for adequate supplementary reading and library materials. Funds available for this purpose would be spent to the best advantage. Care and thought should be exercised to be sure that enrichment materials are added to the departmental or college library collection and, equally important, that these resource materials actually be used by the students.

IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION

The foregoing discussion has already touched upon numerous aspects of teacher improvement. It would be correct to say that a chairman's primary function is to promote in every possible way quality instruction in his department—this usually comes about through teacher improvement.

One sure way to build a strong business teacher education department is to have a strong faculty. Selection and orientation of new faculty members should therefore receive the thoughtful attention of the chairman. New staff members generally participate in an orientation program conducted by the college administration. To supplement this, the department chairman, in cooperation with his staff, should also help in every way to get their new colleagues off to a good start.

INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP CONFERENCES

A good department head will make himself available for individual conferences with his teachers. Frequent informal discussions may prove extremely valuable in clearing up problems that arise almost daily. There will be an occasion, however, when the chairman will wish to meet with several of his teachers and perhaps with the entire departmental faculty. Staff members should be given reasonable prior notice for each meeting; an agenda ought to be prepared and followed as closely as practicable.

The chairman should be a master teacher, and in spite of the many demands upon his time and energy, he should exemplify superior teaching at all times. Although in a teacher education department it is hoped that everyone will have had successful teaching experience and each has proved himself in the profession, further development and improvement is possible by picking up pointers from colleagues. The chairman should encourage his staff to observe selected lessons taught by him and others in the department, as well as make it possible for this observation to take place.

Supervisory visits may be in ill repute on some college campuses; however, many other colleges require the chairman of the business teacher education department to observe his teachers and submit written reports to the administration. This is especially true for relatively new instructors who are not yet under tenure in the department. The chairman should use these class visitations not only for evaluation purposes, but also as a means of professional improvement of his staff. This implies that every class observation will be followed by a personal conference with the instructor. The conference affords an opportunity for discussing the strengths and possible inadequacies of the teaching performance and may help in arriving at solutions for improvement.

GUIDANCE ACTIVITIES

Regardless of the guidance practices and procedures of a college, it is essential that the chairman of a business teacher education program be engaged actively in guidance and counseling. The other staff members in the department must also guide and counsel. If the admission procedures permit, it would be highly desirable for the business education faculty to interview their prospective freshmen and transfer students. After the applicants have been admitted to the college, there should be opportunities for them to meet in guidance sessions with the faculty.

During freshman orientation, the chairman—and the departmental staff, if possible—ought to discuss with his majors the various aspects of the department. Curriculums, standards, student clubs and organizations, special departmental requirements, and other matters that are of vital concern to incoming students should be mentioned at this time.

As the term progresses, students who excel in their studies and those who make outstanding contributions to the co-curricular program of the department and college should be given recognition by the chairman. Students who experience scholastic and other difficulties also should be interviewed by the chairman. All students should know that the chairman is at their service and that he welcomes their making appointments to confer with him.

PROFESSIONAL RELATIONS

Professional relations, both within the college and in the service area of the college, are another major concern of the chairman of a state college business teacher education department. The chairman should encourage the professional growth of his staff. All staff members should be dues-paying members of their local, state, regional, and national education and business education professional associations. Moreover, they should participate actively in the affairs of these educational groups.

If funds are provided to attend conferences and conventions, the chairman will see that these are distributed according to some equitable plan. Even when little or no subsidies are available, it is expected that the chairman and every member of his staff will be inclined to use their own resources to do justice to their professional obligations.

Many publications, bulletins, notices, research reports, and the like will cross the chairman's desk almost daily. He will circulate these among his staff and thereby keep them informed of developments. In turn, staff members will also exchange similar materials which they have received. Another way to keep the staff "in the know" and at the same time promote morale in the department is for the chairman to circulate minutes of the college administrative meetings he attends, memorandums from the various administrative offices, and other types of professional information the staff should know about but which normally would not come to their attention.

The chairman's professional relations in the service area of the college will include promoting professional development of in-service business teachers, assisting schools in carrying out research projects, rendering consultant services, and helping to set up workshops, conferences, and other educational programs either on campus or at the public schools. His relationships with the principals and superintendents should be such that they will not hesitate to call on him when they wish advice and assistance in revamping curriculums, planning facilities, and with other related professional problems.

PUBLICITY AND PUBLIC RELATIONS

The business department chairman must be public relations minded. Broadly speaking, many of his activities can be classified as public relations. His dealings with the staff and students, other departments, the college administration, and the schools and businesses in the service area provide rich opportunities for the development of good public relations.

Publicity is an important vehicle for public relations, and an alert chairman will capitalize on the almost unlimited possibilities it presents. All the members of the teaching staff should recognize the public relations value of the many activities that go on in the department and take the initiative to channel data on newsworthy items either to the chairman or to the director of public relations.

A department engaged in many of the activities mentioned in the foregoing paragraphs will have a steady stream of news stories and feature articles appearing in the college newspaper, the local and regional weekly and daily papers, and occasionally in professional journals. When available, other media such as radio and television should also be utilized. The chairman of the department, or some other person designated by him, must take the responsibility of seeing that the public is informed about the many and varied activities that take place in the department.

In conclusion, it should be stated that a number of other equally important duties and functions of the department chairman merit discussion. Presented here has been a sampling of his responsibilities. These responsibilities indicate that the person charged with the administration and supervision of business education in a state college of education must be a master teacher, an able administrator and supervisor, and an expert in public relations. In colleges where the business education program also includes majors other than teacher education—such as business administration and secretarial training—the chairman is faced with even greater challenges!

CHAPTER 34

The State College of Education Business Curriculum

Paul F. Muse

The business curriculum in the state college of education is developed much in the same way as is the business curriculum at other educational levels. The business curriculum encompasses the sum total of all activities sponsored by the business department for the purpose of attaining its objectives. The philosophy and objectives of the business department thus become the starting point and the basis for the business curriculum, dynamically democratic processes become most effective in curriculum construction and continuous reconstruction, and outcomes become the targets for evaluating curriculum success.

Procedures, not necessarily taken chronologically, for developing and for continuously reconstructing the business curriculum in the state college of education should include the following:

1. *Develop a clear concept of the philosophy and objectives of the business department.* This concept should be developed cooperatively by all personnel involved and in terms of interests, needs, and abilities of all factors involved—personal and political. State colleges of education in their curriculum programs, by virtue of their financial support and state responsibilities, need to adhere to student needs, interests, and abilities and correlate them with state requirements, facilities, and financial abilities.

2. *Determine the general scope and sequence of the business curriculum.* The scope of the business curriculum changes as new interests develop, new needs arise, and new social and technological developments take place; and the necessary sequences for enabling the student to satisfy his needs and to keep pace with change must be provided.

3. *Articulate and correlate the curriculum efforts of the various divisions in the school community.* Unnecessary overlapping and repetition serve no good purpose and often result in wasted and monotonous effort. As states vary in their provisions for different administrative units at various levels of education, state colleges therein must, from necessity, mesh their curriculums in terms of the total state educational program.

4. *Determine the content, the activities, and the experiences necessary to enable the student to attain the objectives set forth by the department of business.* A psychological order to content, activities, and experiences should be one that utilizes student interests in such a way as to help the student understand his interests, aptitudes, and abilities as a basis for the direction he takes in his efforts to find his work in life.

5. *Evaluate the curriculum outcomes in terms of the extent to which the outcomes accomplish the purposes of the curriculum.* Do the graduates secure the occupations in life to which they aspire and for which the curriculum supposedly educated them? To what extent are the graduates successful in the occupations for which the college curriculum educated them?

TRENDS IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN STATE COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

Historical Development. Most state colleges of education today started as state normal schools and their primary objective was to prepare teachers to teach in elementary schools. Frequently, the length of preparation was quite limited in both amount and time. As the secondary school gained prominence and attracted more students, the length of time spent in the state normal school increased; and correspondingly, the quality of graduates improved, too.

In time, the state normal schools became state teachers colleges. In these colleges, the curriculum gradually lengthened to a four-year period; the content was extended to include the preparation of teachers for high school teaching as well as for elementary school teaching.

With the return to school of World War II veterans, more varied student interest and need tended in time to force what had been state teachers colleges to become multiple purpose schools striving to meet many needs besides those of prospective teachers. Consequently, teachers colleges have, for the most part, become state colleges or medium-sized state universities with various departments, or divisions, or colleges, or schools. The common characteristic of all such schools has been their rapid growth and expansion and their development of multiplicity of purposes and curriculums. Beyond these common characteristics, there seems to be variation in organization and procedures.

Trends in Curriculum Development. Great effort has been made in state colleges of education to adjust to the tremendous growth in enrollment, the growth in multiplicity of purposes and curriculums, and the various ways by which colleges and universities can organize themselves for providing adequate and appropriate education for business. In certain schools, a pattern seems to be forming that may offer great possibilities for developing a program of education for business that follows sound educational principles and procedures.

Let us look at four such schools selected not because they are the best or the only ones following this pattern, but because they are widely separated geographically and because they are well-recognized teacher education schools.

THE STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK AT ALBANY

The historical development of this university is typical of the general historical pattern of most state colleges of education; and because of space limitations, it, alone, will be reviewed briefly.

Historically, this school followed the pattern of a normal school in 1844, a normal college in 1890, the New York State College for Teachers in 1914, a State University of New York College of Education at Albany in 1949, and a State University College at Albany in 1961. The changes in name reflect the expanded role and functions of the college.

The undergraduate offerings in business include two programs: a teacher program which prepares teachers to teach business subjects in the secondary schools on the basis of provisional certification and a general program which prepares graduates for a variety of other professions and occupations. The teacher program for the bachelor of arts degree candidate has available an 18-semester hour minimum sequence in business. Both programs for the bachelor of science degree candidate require a business major. Admission requirements for an undergraduate program in business are as follows:

English	4 units	Science (Lab)**	2 units
Social Sciences	3 units	Electives	5 units
Mathematics**	3 units		

Bachelor of science degree candidates are required to complete the following program:

	Sem. Hours
A. Thirty-six or 39 semester hours in the liberal arts and sciences according to the following distribution:	
English Composition and Speech (One course is required in each area; this will normally be Course 1)	6
Art, Literature, Music, Philosophy. One semester course in literature, and at least one course designated by an asterisk (*) from Art, Music, or Philosophy (General Program requires 9 semester hours)	6-9
Social Sciences. Six semester hours in History and six additional hours from Geography, Political Science, Psychology, Sociology, Economics	12
Natural Sciences and Mathematics. Must include one laboratory course in a science and one course in mathematics	12
B. A Major:	
Teacher Education: (maximum hours)	36
General Program: (maximum hours)	42
C. A Second Field Sequence (minimum hours)	18
Teacher Education: Majors in business may elect a sequence in business or another field as advised.	
General Program: Additional requirements to be determined upon advisement with chairman of major department	
D. Special Requirements	22-25
Teacher Education: Professional requirements in education	
General Program: Additional hours in general-liberal subjects (other than major) to total 54 hours	
E. Free Electives:	9-16
Total	124
F. Physical Education (Above the 124 hours of academic study required for graduation)	2

Business Education Major Patterns. Two undergraduate patterns for business majors are available. For general certification to teach business subjects the following subjects are required:

Subjects	*Sem. Hrs.*
Principles of Accounting	6
General Accounting	3
Business Law	4
Advanced Shorthand (Prerequisite: 6 sem. hrs. of typewriting and shorthand classwork or equivalent ability)	3

**May substitute high school business subjects for any portion of the science and mathematics requirement.

Transcription	3
Survey of Business Principles and Practices	4
Advanced Typewriting (Prerequisite: 2 sem. hrs. of typewriting or equivalent ability)	2
Marketing	3
Business Correspondence	2
Business Organization and Management	2
Office Practice (Prerequisites: Principles of Accounting, 6 sem. hrs. and Beginning Typewriting, 2 sem. hrs. or their equivalent)	3
Total Required Hours (Note possible hidden requirements in prerequisites)	35

For special certification to teach accounting and business practice, the following subjects are required:

Subjects	*Sem. Hrs.*
Principles of Accounting	6
General Accounting	6
Business Law	4
Survey of Business Principles and Practices	4
Advanced Typewriting (Prerequisite: Intermediate Typewriting, 2 sem. hrs. or its equivalent)	2
Marketing	3
Business Correspondence	2
Business Organization and Management	2
Office Practice (Prerequisites: Principles of Accounting, 6 sem. hrs. and Beginning Typewriting, 2 sem. hrs. or their equivalents)	3
Seminar in Business Law	2
Income Tax Accounting	3
Advanced Accounting	3
Total Required Hours (Note possible hidden requirements in prerequisites)	40

The required second field of study may be selected from business or any other field of study offered by the college. In business there are four areas of concentration: accounting, office administration, marketing, and general business administration. A second field consisting of a sequence of 18 hours in a non-business field may be developed. At least six hours of advanced work must be included.

EAST CAROLINA COLLEGE, GREENVILLE, NORTH CAROLINA

Business offerings at East Carolina College, Greenville, North Carolina, are offered through a school of business organization with credits expressed in terms of quarter hours. Ninety quarter hours of general education are required for the bachelor of science degree, and one hundred ten quarter hours of general education are required for the bachelor of arts degree. The general education requirements are as follows:

	Qr. Hrs.
English	13
Fine or Practical Arts, Philosophy, Religion, Psychology, Foreign Language must include:	
One course in literature and one course in music or art	
Practical Arts: Principles of Accounting	

(*Continued*)

Psychology for B.S. degree majors	
Electives from fine arts, literature, philosophy, religion, and foreign language	27
Anthropology, Economics, Geography, History, Political Science, Sociology:	
One course in history. An additional course in history is recommended as an elective.	
Economics (including Principles and Money and Banking)	
One of the following: Anthropology, Geography, Political Science, or Sociology	25
Science Sequence in Biology or Chemistry or Physics	12
Mathematics	5
Health 1; three hours of physical education service courses (Must include swimming or pass swimming test)	8
One Foreign Language (Not required of B.S. degree majors)	20
Total required hours	90-110

Core Curriculum in Business and Economics. In addition to the general education requirements of the college, all business majors must take the following required core curriculum in business and economics:

Subjects	*Qr. Hrs.*
Introduction to Business	3
Business Finance	5
Business Communications	3
Business Law	10
Principles of Industrial Management	5
Intermediate Accounting Theory	5
Principles of Marketing	5
Introduction to Economics (required in general education)	5
Money and Banking (required in general education)	
Economic and Business Statistics	
Principles of Accounting (required in general education)	
Total required core hours in addition to those required in general education	41

Areas of concentration in business beyond the core curriculum in business and economics vary in their requirements. All candidates for the bachelor of arts degree with a major in business administration must select one of the following areas of concentration in business:

Accounting	*Qr. Hrs.*
Intermediate Accounting Theory	5
Advanced Accounting Theory	5
Federal Income Tax Accounting	5
Auditing	5
Cost Accounting	5
	25

The student, in conference with his major adviser, must select courses beyond the core curriculum requirements in at least three of the following areas:

General Business		*Qr. Hrs.*
Accounting Economics Finance General Business Management Marketing	Twenty-five hours of credit in at least three areas	25
		25

Economics	*Qr. Hrs.*
Economics 216, Intermediate Economic Theory	
The student, in conference with his major adviser, must select advanced courses in economics beyond the core curriculum requirements	20
	25

Summary—Bachelor of Arts Degree. The degree of bachelor of arts with a major in business administration is conferred by the college when the student has received a minimum of 190 quarter hours and has met the requirements in general education, the core curriculum in business, the area of concentration in business, and free electives. The following subjects are required to complete a business administration minor in business and economics:

Subjects	*Qr. Hrs.*
Principles of Accounting	10
Business Finance	5
Business Law	5
Principles of Industrial Management	5
Principles of Marketing	5
Principles of Economics	10
Economic and Business Statistics	5
Total Required Hours	45

The following subjects are required to complete an economics minor:

Subjects	*Qr. Hrs.*
Principles of Accounting	10
Principles of Economics	10
Money and Banking	5
Economics and Business Statistics	5
Advanced Subjects in Economics	15
Total Required Hours	45

All candidates for the bachelor of science degree must meet the professional requirements of the college in the area of psychology and education:

Professional Courses in Psychology and Education—31 Qr. Hrs.

All candidates for the bachelor of science degree with a major in business education must select one of the following areas of concentration in business:

Comprehensive Business Certificate

Subjects	*Qr. Hrs.*
Typewriting	6
Office Machines	2
Shorthand	9
Secretarial Science	6
Shorthand Methods	2
Principles of Business Education	2
Office Practice	3
	30

Basic Business Certificate

Subjects	*Qr. Hrs.*
Typewriting	6
Personal Finance	3
Office Machines	1
Bookkeeping Methods	2
Accounting Apprenticeship	3
Ten hours advanced accounting electives	10
Principles of Business Education	2
	27

Distributive Education Certificate

Subjects	*Qr. Hrs.*
Typewriting	6
Personal Finance	3
Office Machines	1
Distributive Education Methods	2
Principles of Business Education	2
Principles of Retailing	5
Principles of Selling and Sales Promotion Principles of Advertising Credits and Collections Cases in Marketing Strategy Problems in Advertising	8
	27

Distributive education majors are required to meet an experience requirement of one year or 2000 clock hours of selling in approved positions that were held after graduation from high school. This requirement may be met by working in selling jobs on Saturdays, spare-time jobs, vacations, summer work, and holidays. Immediately after the student's first registration as a distributive education major, he must work out a program with the distributive education adviser under which he will meet the experience requirement before graduation.

Summary—Bachelor of Science Degree. The degree of bachelor of science with a major in business education is conferred by the college when the student has received a minimum of 190 quarter hours and has met the requirements in general education, professional courses in psychology and education, the core curriculum in business, the area of concentration in business, and free electives.

Special two-year business programs are offered to provide graduates with secretarial certificates, and medical secretarial certificates. All courses taken in these curriculums carry full credit toward the bachelor of science degree.

STATE COLLEGE OF IOWA, CEDAR FALLS, IOWA

The State College of Iowa at Cedar Falls, Iowa, requires 47 semester hours of general education on all its curriculums. These requirements are as follows:

	Sem. Hrs.
English and Speech	
English I	3
*English II	2
*Speech	3
Mathematics	
*Math G. E.	3
Science	
*Physical Science	3
*Biological Science	4

	Sem. Hrs.
Humanities	
Ancient Times	4
17th Century	4
Philosophy or Bible	
Int. Philosophy or Her. of Bible	2
Physical Education	
Physical Education	4

	Sem. Hrs.
Social Science	
Man in Soc. I	4
Man in Soc. II	4
World Res.	3
Music	
*Exp. Music	2
Art	
*Man and Material	2

Additional Requirements for Certification to Teach:

Professional Education (22 Semester Hours)	*Sem. Hrs.*
Teacher and Child	5
Psychology of Learning	5
Soc. Foundation of Education	4
Student Teaching	8

Swimming (Men)

Typewriting (ability to typewrite) one-half unit of typewriting credit in high school meets this requirement.

Additional major, minor, and elective courses (to make a total of 130 semester hours for graduation)

Teaching: To be accepted on a teaching curriculum, a student must maintain a 2.20 cumulative grade index and meet required health, character, and personality standards.

Additional general education requirements *if not* on a teaching program (9 sem. hrs.)

General Psychology	*Sem. Hrs.*
Two courses chosen from two of the following *three* categories:	3

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*Additional major, minor, and elective courses (to make a total of 124 semester hours for graduation)

General Psychology (*continued*)

a. Introduction to Literature	3
b. American History since 1877	4
c. Oriental Art	3
Oriental Civilization	3
Russia	4
The Far East	3
Modern Chinese History	3
Geography of Asia	3
Geography of Africa	3

Non-teaching majors requiring foreign language for graduation

Students majoring in the following areas must fulfill a foreign language requirement for graduation: —art, English, speech, social studies (all majors)

(Non-academic majors must include 8 hours from academic areas.)

In addition to the general education requirements, majors in business education and business are required to complete the following:

The Business Education Major

36-Hour Minimum	*Sem. Hrs.*
Introduction to Business	4
Principles of Accounting	6
Business Law I	3
Advanced Typewriting	3
Office Techniques	2
Methods in Business Subjects	3
Total Core	21
Plus minimum electives	15
Minimum total in Business Education	36

Recommended: Completion of an emphasis

Required: One minor or emphasis "E" or "F"

A—Basic Business Emphasis

15 hours from:	*Sem. Hrs.*
Business Law II (required)	3
Elements of Distribution (required)	3
Income Tax	3
Salesmanship	2
Retailing	4
Business Writing	3
Business Management	4
Personnel Management	3
Elements of Data Processing	3
Problems	Arranged

B—Accounting Emphasis

15 hours from:	*Sem. Hrs.*
Business Law II	3
Problems	Arranged
Plus other courses in accounting	

C—Marketing Emphasis

15 hours including:	*Sem. Hrs.*
Elements of Distribution	3
Salesmanship	2
Retailing	4
Sales Promotion	3
Plus other courses in Marketing, or Elements of Data Processing	3
Problems	Arranged

D—Secretarial Emphasis

15 hours including:	*Sem. Hrs.*
Office Practice	3
Secretarial Practice	5
Plus other courses from:	
Beginning and Advanced Shorthand	8
Business Law II	3
Business Writing	3
Office Management	3
Personnel Management	3
Elements of Data Processing	3
Problems	Arranged

E—Distributive Education, Teacher Coordinator Emphasis

		Sem. Hrs.
a. Completion of Market Emphasis		15
b. Professional courses including:		
Organization and Administration of Cooperative Programs		4
Philosophy of Vocational Education		2
Plus other courses from:		
Adult Business Education Programs	2	
Individual Inst. Tech.	2	
Introduction to Guidance and Counseling	3	
c. Directed Work Experience (4 hours) or documental proof of satisfactory work experience (3000 hours)		

F—Office Education, Teacher Coordinator Emphasis

a. Completion of Secretarial Emphasis	15
b. Professional courses (same as Emphasis E)	8
c. Directed Work Experience (same as Emphasis E)	

The Business Major (38 hours minimum)

Required	*Sem. Hrs.*
Introduction to Business	4
Principles of Accounting	6
Business Law I	3
Elements of Distribution	3
Total Core	16
Plus an emphasis in business	15
Plus minimum electives	7
Minimum total in business	38

Recommended: Eight hours in economics, including Principles of Economics. A minor field may be chosen, but is not required.

Required: One of the following four emphases.

General Business Emphasis	
15 hours chosen from:	*Sem. Hrs.*
Business Law II	3
Business Writing	3
Office Management	3
Business Management	3
Personnel Management	3
Elements of Data Processing	3
Problems	*Arranged*
Accounting Emphasis	
Business Law II and 12 additional hrs. in accounting	3
Marketing Emphasis	
Business Writing and	3
Twelve additional hours in marketing or Elements of Data Processing	3
Secretarial Emphasis	
15 hours chosen from:	
Advanced Shorthand	4
Office Practice	3
Secretarial Practice	5
Business Writing	3
Office Management	3
Elements of Data Processing	3
Problems	Arranged

INDIANA STATE COLLEGE, TERRE HAUTE, INDIANA

Undergraduate business curriculums at Indiana State College are clearly designated in two major areas: business education and business administration. Although lines of demarcation are reflected clearly in programs of studies, the offerings are closely correlated and integrated, not only within the department of business, but also with other allied departments on the campus.

State certification patterns pretty well govern the offerings in business education. All business education teachers, as well as other secondary school teachers, are required by the Division of Teacher Education and Certification in the State Department of Public Instruction to include 50 semester hours of general education in their undergraduate programs. Some variation in this requirement is possible because the requirement is expressed in variable terms. The general education requirements provide that the 50 semester hours shall be distributed as follows:

Areas of Study	*Sem. Hrs.*
1. Humanities from among the following: literature, grammar, oral and written expression, fine arts, foreign language, and philosophy	16-18
2. Life and Physical Science from among: biology, physics, chemistry, geography, geology, astronomy, and mathematics	14-16

3. Social and Behavioral Science from among the following: history, economics, sociology, government, anthropology, psychology, and political geography	14-16
4. Electives: Courses designed to meet the goals of general education as defined by the institution of higher education	0-6
Total Semester Hours	50

Professional education requirements by the state licensing division include a minimum of 18 semester hours. These hours are not stated categorically, but they imply understandings and competencies in: (a) public school organization (including the place of the public school in the American culture), the philosophy of the public school as a social institution, and the problem the public school faces as it attempts to relate itself to the various aspects of American life; (b) psychological and sociological foundations underlying education and skills in applying them in teaching; (c) the broad methods, special techniques, and materials of instruction appropriate to the area or areas of subject matter instruction and skill in applying them in a classroom; and (d) the broad professional role of the teacher as a responsible member of society and as a participant in a cooperative educational endeavor.

Subject matter concentration in teacher education patterns attempts to provide knowledge and skill sufficient for teaching competency in one or more curricular fields. Teaching area majors consist of a minimum of 52 semester hours, teaching subject majors consist of a minimum of 40 semester hours, and a teaching minor consists of a minimum of 24 semester hours. Emphasis is placed on the fact that all these areas are a planned program that provides understanding of the essential body of subject matter in the given area and an appreciation of its logical structure. Likewise, organization and continuity in course sequence are provided also.

Listed from the Indiana State Department of Public Instruction are the required patterns for business and distributive education

Business Education	*Teaching Minor (7) Sem. Hrs.*	*Teaching Major A (8) Sem. Hrs.*	*Teaching Major B (8) Sem. Hrs.*	*Teaching Area Major Sem. Hrs.*
Business Administration (1)	8	14	14	16
Economics (2)	4	9	9	9
Accounting (3)	4	–	6	6
Typewriting-Clerical (4)	6	6	6	6
Secretarial (5)	–	6	–	8
Elective (6)	2	5	5	7
Total Semester Hours	24	40	40	52

(1) Business Administration

For the teaching subject minor, business administration courses will always include courses of no less than two semester hours each in the principles of marketing, management, and accounting; and additional courses for the required minimum number of hours from business law, insurance, finance, and accounting.

For teaching majors and teaching area majors, business administration courses will always include no less than two semester hours each in principles of marketing, management, finance, accounting, business law, and geography. Additional courses to meet the minimum number of hours will be selected from advanced courses from the foregoing areas and from real estate, insurance, business, government relations, analysis of business conditions, statistics, transportation, or public utilities.

(2) Economics

For the teaching minor, economics courses will always include at least four semester hours in the principles of economics.

For the teaching majors and teaching area majors, economics courses will always include at least five semester hours in the principles of economics and two semester hours in consumer economics or advanced principles courses. Remaining courses will be taken in economics to meet minimum required hours.

(3) Accounting

For the teaching major B, the teaching minor, and the teaching area major, accounting courses will always include one additional course in the principles of accounting beyond courses required in business administration. Remaining courses will be taken in principles, intermediate, federal income tax, or auditing.

(4) Typewriting-Clerical

Two courses in typewriting of not less than two semester hours each will always be included. Remaining hours to meet the required minimum will be taken in typewriting or other office skill courses, not including shorthand and transcription.

(5) Secretarial

Always included will be two courses in shorthand or transcription of not less than two semester hours each. Remaining hours will be selected from advanced shorthand and transcription, and secretarial practice.

(6) Elective

Additional semester hours to meet the required minimum for endorsement may be selected from any one or in any combination of the areas of preparation designated for business education.

(7) The teaching minor qualifies the holder of the endorsement to teach advanced general business, bookkeeping, business arithmetic, general business (junior) and typewriting.

(8) Teaching major A qualifies the holder of the endorsement to teach advanced general business, business administration and management, business arithmetic, business English, business law, consumer economics, economics, economic geography, general business (junior), office practice, retail selling, secretarial practice, shorthand and transcription, and typewriting. Teaching Major B qualifies the holder for the same subject as Subject Major A except that bookkeeping is added and shorthand and transcription are omitted.

(9) The teaching area major qualifies the holder of the endorsement to teach all business subjects.

Distributive Education	*Teaching Area Major Sem. Hrs.*
Business Administration (1)	22
Economics (2)	9
Electives: (3) From advanced courses in marketing and management and from fine arts and home economics	6
Professional Requirements (4)	8
Electives (5)	7
Occupational Experiences (6)	
Total Semester Hours	52

This teaching area major qualifies the holder of the endorsement to teach advanced general business, bookkeeping, business administration and management, business arithmetic, business English, general business (junior), business law, consumer economics, economics, economic geography, retail selling, and vocational distributive education in the secondary schools of Indiana.

(1) Business administration courses will always include courses of not less than two semester hours each in principles of marketing, management, finance, business law, advertising, retailing, and salesmanship; and eight semester hours of accounting including four semester hours of principles.

(2) Economics courses will always include at least five semester hours in the principles of economics and two semester hours in consumer economics or advanced principles. Additional courses will be taken in economics to meet minimum required hours.

(3) Courses in fine arts will deal with such topics as color, line, and design. Courses in home economics will deal with such topics as textiles and clothing.

(4) In addition to the 12 semester hours of professional education and 6 semester hours of student teaching prescribed for the secondary school teacher certificate, provisional, the program will include a minimum of two semester hours each in methods of teaching bookkeeping and general business subjects, methods of teaching distributive education subjects; philosophy, organization and administration of vocational distributive education, and techniques of coordination in distributive education.

(5) It is strongly recommended that six semester hours of electives be taken in the typewriting-clerical group in order to include the teaching of typewriting in the validity of the endorsement.

(6) The minimum requirement in occupational experience is two years of successful full-time employment in the distributive occupations or a minimum of 1500 clock hours of approved and supervised work in the distributive field under an approved teacher training program, or a combination equivalent thereto. Additional approved work experience over three years may be accepted in lieu of credits in courses in business administration and distribution at the rate of one year for three semester hours, with a maximum of nine semester hours allowed.

The Business Department at Indiana State College prepares its students to become business education teachers through the following patterns of offerings:

GENERAL EDUCATION

	Area		*Sem. Hrs.*
A.	English and Speech Required: English Composition (6 hours) Introduction to Speech (2 hours)		8
B.	Humanities	Minimum of	12
	Choice from general education courses in at least three departments; not more than 6 hours in any one of the following: Art, English (Literature), General Humanities, Music, Philosophy		
C.	Foreign Language		0-14
	A requirement in Liberal Arts only; not a requirement in other curriculums (See notes below)		
D.	Science and Mathematics	Minimum of	14
	Choice from general education courses in at least three departments or areas; no more than 6 hours in any one of the following:		

1
5

Mathematics, Biological Science, Earth and Sky Science, Physical Science

E. Social and Behavioral Science — Minimum of 14
Choice from general education courses in at least three of the following; not more than 6 hours in any one of the following: Economics, History, Political Science, Sociology, Psychology (Psychology 201 required in teaching curriculums)

F. Physical Education — 2

Total Minimum of 50

Notes and General Principles

1. On teaching curriculums, Psychology 201 is required. The remaining 11 hours in the social and behavioral sciences should be taken in at least two of the four social sciences with no more than six hours in any one.
2. It is recommended that, if possible, a student complete the general education requirements by taking some work in general education at the 300 and 400 level.
3. Foreign language is a requirement for the bachelor of arts degree only. Students in this program will be expected to demonstrate second year level language competence. The foreign language department will determine the degree of competence and the amount of foreign language to be taken.
4. In all curriculums, courses which are included as requirements in the major and minor fields and are at the same time applicable to general education shall count both ways, subject to the rule that no more than six semester hours may be taken in one field to meet the minimum requirements in a particular general education area.

Business Teaching Minor Secondary (Junior High School Endorsement and Elementary Endorsement)

Business Administration and Accounting	*Sem. Hrs.*	*Total Hrs.*
Principles of Marketing 305	3	
Personal Financial Management 308	2	
Accounting Principles 201	3	
Accounting Principles 202	3	11
Economics		
Introduction to Economics 110	3	
Principles of Economics 210	3	6
Typewriting and Clerical		
**Beginning Typewriting 121	2	
**Intermediate Typewriting 122	2	
Advanced Typewriting 123	2	6
Electives		
Machine Duplication 237 Office Machines 214 Principles of Management 240	1	1
		24

**These subjects cannot be taken for credit by students who have acquired equivalent ability in high school. Substitutes must be approved by the counselor and the chairman of the Department of Business. Appropriate substitutes: Applied Typewriting 124, Machine Duplication 237, Machine Dictation and Transcription 238, and Office Machines 214.

Note: Students who complete this minor are strongly urged to take appropriate methods in teaching typewriting and basic business.

BUSINESS TEACHING MAJOR A

Business Administration and Accounting	*Sem. Hrs.*	*Total Hrs.*
Principles of Marketing 305	3	
Introduction to Business 140	3	
Personal Financial Management 308	2	
Accounting Principles 201	3	
Survey of Business Law 331	3	
Economic Geography	3	17
Economics		
Introduction to Economics 110	3	
Principles of Economics 210	3	
Elect from:		
Government and Business 310 Money and Banking 314 Introduction to Labor Economics 315 Public Finance 311	3 —	9
Typewriting and Clerical		
**Beginning Typewriting 121	2	
**Intermediate Typewriting 122	2	
Advanced Typewriting 123	2	6
Secretarial		
***Beginning Stenography 211	2	
***Intermediate Stenography 212	3	
Advanced Stenography 213	3	8
		40

Note: Students who complete this major are required to take appropriate methods in the teaching of typewriting-clerical, basic business, and shorthand-secretarial.

BUSINESS TEACHING MAJOR B

Business Administration and Accounting	*Sem. Hrs.*	*Total Hrs.*
Principles of Marketing 305	3	
Introduction to Business 140	3	
Personal Financial Management 308	2	
Accounting Principles 201	3	
Accounting Principles 202	3	
Intermediate Accounting 301	3	
Survey of Business Law 331	3	
Economic Geography 257	3	23

**These subjects cannot be taken for credit by students who have acquired equivalent ability in high school. Substitutes must be approved by the counselor and the chairman of the Department of Business. Appropriate substitutes: Applied Typewriting 124, Machine Duplication 237, and Machine Dictation and Transcription 238.

***These subjects cannot be taken for credit by students who have acquired equivalent ability in high school. Substitutes must be approved by the counselor and the chairman of the Department of Business. Appropriate substitutes: Office and Secretarial Practice 339 and Machine Dictation and Transcription 238.

Economics		
Introduction to Economics 110	3	
Principles of Economics 210	3	
Elect from:		
Government and Business 310 Money and Banking 314 Introduction to Labor Economics 315 Public Finance 311	3	9
Typewriting and Clerical		
**Beginning Typewriting 121	2	
**Intermediate Typewriting 122	2	
Advanced Typewriting 123	2	6
Electives		
Office Machines 214 Principles of Insurance 340 Business Communications 330 Principles of Management 240 Principles of Transportation 347 Corporation Finance 360	2	2
		40

Note: Students who complete this major are required to take appropriate methods in teaching clerical recordkeeping and bookkeeping, typewriting-clerical, and basic business.

BUSINESS TEACHING AREA MAJOR

Business Administration and Accounting	*Sem. Hrs.*	*Total Hrs.*
Principles of Marketing 305	3	
Introduction to Business 140	3	
Personal Financial Management 308	2	
Accounting Principles 201	3	
Accounting Principles 202	3	
Intermediate Accounting 301	3	
Survey of Business Law 331	3	
Economic Geography 257	3	23
Economics		
Introduction to Economics 110	3	
Principles of Economics 210	3	
Elect from:		
Government and Business 310 Money and Banking 314 Introduction to Labor Economics 315 Public Finance 311	6	12

**These subjects cannot be taken for credit by students who have acquired equivalent ability in high school. Substitutes must be approved by the counselor and the chairman of the Department of Business. Appropriate substitutes: Applied Typewriting 124, Machine Duplication 237, and Machine Dictation and Transcription 238.

Typewriting and Clerical		
**Beginning Typewriting 121	2	
**Intermediate Typewriting 122	2	
Advanced Typewriting 123	2	6
Secretarial		
***Beginning Stenography 211	2	
***Intermediate Stenography 212	3	
Advanced Stenography 213	3	8
Electives		
Principles of Management 241 Principles of Transportation 347 Corporation Finance 360	3	3
		52

Note: Students who complete this major are required to take appropriate methods in the teaching of clerical recordkeeping and bookkeeping, typewriting-clerical, basic business, and shorthand-secretarial.

DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION

Business Administration and Accounting	*Sem. Hrs.*	*Total Hrs.*
Principles of Marketing 305	3	
Principles of Management 240	3	
Personal Financial Management 308	2	
Accounting Principles 201	3	
Accounting Principles 202	3	
Intermediate Accounting 301	3	
Survey of Business Law 331	3	
Selling and Sales Promotion	3	
Principles of Retailing 335	3	
Principles of Advertising 337	3	29
Economics		
Introduction to Economics 110	3	
Principles of Economics 210	3	
Elect from:		
Government and Business 310 Money and Banking 314 Introduction to Labor Economics 315 Public Finance	3	9

**These subjects cannot be taken for credit by students who have acquired equivalent ability in high school. Substitutes must be approved by the counselor and the chairman of the Department of Business. Appropriate substitutes: Applied Typewriting 124, Machine Duplication 237, and Machine Dictation and Transcription 238.

***These subjects cannot be taken for credit by students who have acquired equivalent ability in high school. Substitutes must be approved by the counselor and the chairman of the Department of Business. Appropriate substitutes: Office and Secretarial Practice 339, and Machine Dictation and Transcription 238.

Related Areas

Art 101 Color and Design	3	
Home Economics 111 Textiles	3	6

Additional Professional Education

	Sem. Hrs.	*Total Hrs.*
Methods of Teaching Bookkeeping and Clerical Recordkeeping 392	1	
Methods of Teaching Basic Business Subjects 394	1	
Methods of Teaching Distributive Education 396	2	
Philosophy, Organization, and Administration of Vocational Distributive Education 497	2	
Techniques of Coordination in Distributive Education	2	8
		52

Additional Requirements in the Form of Occupational Experience

Two years of successful full-time employment in the distributive occupations or a minimum of 1500 clock hours of approved and supervised work in the distributive field under an approved teacher education program, or a combination equivalent thereto.

Note: Students who complete this major will be strongly urged to complete a six-hour sequence in the typewriting and clerical area.

BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

The undergraduate business administration patterns at Indiana State College prepare students for occupations in business, industry, government service, and public affairs. A liberal arts minor in business includes the following sequence of offerings:

Subjects	*Sem. Hrs.*
Introduction to Business	3
Basic Accounting	3
Principles of Marketing	3
Personal Financial Management	2
Survey of Business Law	3
Elect 10 hours:	
**Elementary Typewriting	2
Business Communications	2
Principles of Insurance	3
Principles of Transportation	3
Business Finance	3
Income Tax Procedure	3
Principles of Investments	3
Total hours required for liberal arts business minor	24

**This subject cannot be taken for credit by students who have acquired equivalent ability in high school. An approved substitute is determined cooperatively by the student, his counselor, and the chairman of the Department of Business.

Four-year undergraduate business administration curriculum patterns provide the following offerings:

General Requirements: All business majors are required to demonstrate proficiency in the use of the typewriter. This proficiency can be established either by examination or by course credit. Proficiency examinations are given three times annually—approximately one month before the end of each semester and during the second week of the second summer term. Details relative to the extent of proficiency and other procedures relative to this requirement are available in the office of the department chairman.

GENERAL BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION CURRICULUM

General Business Administration Major

Subjects	*Sem. Hrs.*	*Total Hrs.*
Business Report Writing	2	
Introduction to Business	3	
Principles of Accounting I	3	
Principles of Accounting II	3	
Principles of Management	3	
Principles of Marketing	3	
Business Communications	2	
Business Finance	3	
Business Law I	3	
Business Law II	3	28
Business sequence concentrations (student selects one sequence)		
Management		
Principles of Insurance	3	
Personnel Management	3	
Office Management or Production Management	3	
Government and Business	3	12
Insurance		
Life Insurance I	3	
Life Insurance II	3	
Property and Casualty Insurance I	3	
Property and Casualty Insurance II	3	12
Finance		
Principles of Insurance	3	
Principles of Investments	3	
Credits and Collections I	3	
Public Finance	3	12
Transportation		
Principles of Transportation	3	
Rail, Pipeline, and Forwarder Transportation	3	
Motor, Water, and Air Transportation	3	
Transportation and Traffic Management	3	12

	Sem. Hrs.	*Total Hrs.*
Total hours required for the major		40
General Education		50
Electives (may include a subject minor)		34
Total hours required for graduation		124

General Business Administration Minor

Subjects		
Principles of Accounting I	3	
Principles of Accounting II	3	
Introduction to Business	3	
Principles of Management	3	
Principles of Marketing	3	
Principles of Insurance	3	
Business Law I	3	
Business Law II	3	
Total hours required for the minor		24

ACCOUNTING-BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION CURRICULUM

Accounting-Business Administration Major

Subjects		
Principles of Accounting I	3	
Principles of Accounting II	3	
Office Machines	2	
Principles of Management	3	
Intermediate Accounting I	3	
Intermediate Accounting II	3	
Business Report Writing	2	
Advanced Accounting I	3	
Advanced Accounting II	3	
Cost Accounting I	3	
Cost Accounting II	3	
Production Management	3	
Business Law I	3	
Business Statistics	3	
Total hours required for the major		40
General Education		50
Electives (may include a subject minor)		34
Total hours required for graduation		124

Accounting Minor

Principles of Accounting I	3	
Principles of Accounting II	3	
Principles of Management	3	
Intermediate Accounting I	3	
Intermediate Accounting II	3	
Cost Accounting I	3	

(Continued)

	Sem. Hrs.	*Total Hrs.*
Cost Accounting II	3	
Business Statistics	3	
Total hours required for the minor		24

MARKETING-BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION CURRICULUM

Marketing-Business Administration Curriculum

Principles of Accounting I	3	
Principles of Accounting II	3	
Principles of Management	3	
Principles of Marketing	3	
Business Communications	2	
Principles of Retailing	3	
Principles of Advertising	3	
Principles of Transportation	3	
Business Finance	3	
Problems of Retailing or Marketing Research	3	
Marketing Management	3	
Credit and Collections	3	
Marketing Electives	5	
Total hours required for the major		40
General Education		50
Electives (may include a subject minor)		34
Total hours required for graduation		124

Marketing Minor

Principles of Accounting I	3	
Principles of Accounting II	3	
Principles of Management	3	
Principles of Marketing	3	
Marketing Electives	12	
Total hours required for the minor		24

SECRETARIAL SCIENCE-BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION CURRICULUM

Secretarial Science-Business Administration Major

Subjects		
**Elementary Typewriting	2	
**Intermediate Typewriting	2	
Advanced Typewriting	2	
Applied Typewriting	2	
Introduction to Business	3	
Basic Accounting	3	
**Beginning Stenography	2	
**Intermediate Stenography	3	
Advanced Stenography	3	

**These subjects cannot be taken for credit by students who have acquired equivalent ability in high school. Approved substitutes are determined cooperatively by the student, his counselor, and the chairman of the Department of Business.

	Sem. Hrs.	*Total Hrs.*
Office Machines	2	
Machine Duplicating	1	
Machine Dictation and Transcription	1	
Business Communications	2	
Office and Secretarial Practice	3	
Business Report Writing	2	
Electives in Business	7	
Total hours required for the major		40
General Education		50
Electives (may include a subject minor)		34
Total hours required for graduation		124

Secretarial Science Minor

**Elementary Typewriting	2	
**Intermediate Typewriting	2	
Advanced Typewriting	2	
Applied Typewriting	2	
Office Machines	2	
**Beginning Stenography	2	
**Intermediate Stenography	3	
Advanced Stenography	3	
Business Communications	2	
Office and Secretarial Practice	3	
Machine Dictation and Transcription	1	
Total hours required for the minor		24

TWO-YEAR SECRETARIAL CURRICULUM

A two-year secretarial curriculum is available for young women who desire to become top-level secretaries. Any credits earned on this curriculum are applicable toward the completion of a four-year curriculum. Graduates of this curriculum are granted two-year certificates.

Two-Year Secretarial Curriculum

Subjects	*Sem. Hrs.*	*Total Hrs.*
**Elementary Typewriting	2	
**Intermediate Typewriting	2	
Advanced Typewriting	2	
Introduction to Business	3	
Basic Accounting	3	
**Beginning Stenography	2	
**Intermediate Stenography	3	
Advanced Stenography	3	
Office Machines	2	

(*Continued*)

**These subjects cannot be taken for credit by students who have acquired equivalent ability in high school. Approved substitutes are determined cooperatively by the student, his counselor, and the chairman of the Department of Business.

Machine Duplicating	1	
Applied Typewriting	2	
Machine Dictation and Transcription	1	
Business Communications	2	
Survey of Business Law	3	
Office and Secretarial Practice	3	
Business Electives	4	38
General Education and Electives		
Subjects		
Freshman English I	3	
Freshman English II	3	
English Grammar	2	
Introduction to Economics	3	
Fundamentals of Psychology	3	
Personal Hygiene	2	
Physical Education	2	
Home Economics, Clothing Selection	2	
Electives	4	24
Total hours required for the certificate		62

Supplementing the class activities in all four of the state colleges mentioned are certain to be many extraclass activities that add to the complete education of the student. Only some of the activities at Indiana State College will be mentioned as the writer is not familiar with the details of what is being done at the other three colleges

The purposes of the college may be summarized in three categories: (a) cultural-personal, (b) social-civic, and (c) vocational. Competence in these three basic areas is the outcome of what is thought to be a sound educational program that encompasses (a) temporal relevance, (b) academic integrity, and (c) educational unity. Emphasis is given to correlating and integrating these competencies in a high degree of excellence in thought-provoking class work, in well-organized and varied extraclass activities and in internship work-programs resulting in both educational and financial aids.

In the department of business, active student organizations such as Pi Omega Pi and Phi Beta Lambda provide desirable honorary and professional experiences that lead to the many outcomes of the objectives of the department and the college. Work internships and work scholarships add realism, purpose, and motivation to educationa efforts. A bureau of business research provides opportunities to put into practice the theory and technique of gathering data, classifying it, and interpreting it in usefu ways. Conferences and clinics provide useful experiences to prospective and curren teachers and to prospective and current business personnel. In both areas of busines education and business administration, a well-organized school placement service attempts to match graduates with positions in terms of the highest possible future advantages to the graduate, to the employer, and to the college.

Recently, an electronic computing center has been established at the college. Al business majors are privileged to become oriented to the computer and to experienc some elementary programming. Plans call for this knowledge to be applied throug advanced courses in accounting, management, and marketing.

Summary and Recommendations. State colleges of education no longer limit offerings to the preparation of teachers. For the most part, the state colleges of education are multiple purpose institutions. The organizational structure will vary; however, subject matter is correlated. The graduates are prepared for occupations in teaching, factories, offices, financial institutions, government centers, and distribution and sales outlets.

Offerings at various educational levels in each state and in each community should be carefully articulated. The acid test of any curriculum is the degree of success experienced by graduates. To attain the stated objectives, state colleges of education will need to keep pace with changing interests, needs, and developments. Therefore, business curriculums in state colleges of education will vary according to needs, abilities, and facilities.

A study of some curriculums reveals that, in general, offerings are categorized according to the following patterns and proportions:

	Sem. Hrs.
A. *General education* (basic academic offerings: English, physical sciences, social sciences, and mathematics.)	40-60
B. *Subject matter content in business* (minors, subject majors, and area majors)	18-50
C. *Professional education* (general and special methods; psychology of education; history, organization and philosophy of education; and student teaching (including observation and participation)	18-24
D. *Electives* (often includes a second field sequence)	8-24
Total Semester Hours Required for Graduation	124

CRITICAL OBSERVATIONS

As in other educational institutions, there seems to be a conflict between general education and vocational education. By many educators, general education is believed to be made up wholly of the liberal arts areas of English, the humanities, the physical sciences, and the social sciences. In many college catalogs, general education is often described as follows:

> General education is thought of as that nonspecialized and non-vocational learning which should be the common experience of educated men and women. It is that part of a student's whole education which looks first of all to his life as a responsible human being and citizen.

To consider general education as that part of a student's whole education that looks first of all to his life as a responsible human being and citizen and to exclude some specialization and work is completely unjustified. Certainly, one of the first requisites of responsible human dignity and effective citizenship is honest, dignified, and productive work; and work, today, is specialized.

Therefore, if education is to be effective, general education and vocational education must be correlated and integrated. The curriculums in state colleges of education should reflect a unity of purpose in curricular patterns, in methods of instruction, and in content.

Further, there is a grave danger that can come from knowing less and less about more and more. If the academic areas encroach on total available time, the vocational teachers, and particularly business teachers, will find it impossible to meet certification requirements in any area other than their major area of preparation. If dual certification is attained, extra work must be done and extra classes must be added. Either resultant consequence is untenable.

At all levels, business education is an interrelated aspect of the total educational program. As such, it can be justified only on the same basis as other public education. It is obligated to contribute its share to enable all learners to understand functionally the meanings and implications of our way of life. The cultural, social, physical, and intellectual or spiritual aspects of life are interrelated and not compartmentalized segments. Important media through which much of life is realized are appropriate attitudes, indefatigable ambitions, necessary abilities, and persistent work. Business education contributes to all of these if its curriculums are what they ought to be and can be.

CHAPTER 35

Business Education in Liberal Arts Colleges

George W. Anderson

After the War of 1812, the economy of the United States changed from one that was primarily agricultural in nature to one that was industrial in nature. People began to move westward and to develop the unexplored lands; this westward movement and development increased the number of domestic markets for business and industry. In order to keep an adequate supply of goods available for these domestic markets, large-scale businesses developed which, in turn, increased the emphasis on the division of labor. By 1860, 63 per cent of the more than seven million employed persons were engaged in agriculture. The national income was estimated at about 4.5 million dollars. By 1960, just 100 years later, the United States was a country of nearly 180 million people with the highest per capita output in the world. In addition to supplying the domestic markets, American businessmen were sending great quantities of goods to foreign markets. Of the approximately 66 million people employed, 92 per cent were engaged in non-agricultural pursuits. The national income had risen to approximately 417 billion dollars.

Business organization changed rapidly with the development of additional domestic and foreign markets for American industry. The number of individual proprietorships decreased while the number of partnerships and the number of corporations increased and assumed control of a major part of business in the United States. These changes brought about a need for effective business leadership. By 1962, there were in the United States over 17 million corporation stockholders and their dependents looking to business leaders in the country for all or part of their incomes.

There was little need to educate people for business prior to 1812; the colleges then were for the select few who wanted to enter the ministry, medicine, or law. The economy needed no other type of collegiate education. With the advent of the industrial revolution, there developed the need for well-trained individuals who could manage and operate a large business enterprise effectively. Thus, collegiate education for business grew quickly. In 1873, Sholes developed the typewriter. With each successive model an improvement over the previous model, there came a time when this machine was practical for office use in writing letters, reports, and the like. Men were not happy with this type of work; women learned shorthand and typewriting and entered the business office as stenographers and secretaries. As business grew, men moved into management jobs while women handled the clerical jobs. In addition to shorthand and typewriting, office practice, secretarial practice, business law, bookkeeping, and a host of other business subjects were added to the curriculum for women in the private business schools in which most of the training was completed. By 1910, high schools had assumed a share of this training.

The management jobs required a broader type of education for business than was offered in the high schools or the business schools. A college education became increasingly necessary. With the increase in population and the increase in the number of management jobs available, the number of colleges increased. Most of them were liberal arts colleges and were associated with a religious sect; however, there were a number that avoided this association.

PURPOSES OF LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES

A study of the purposes of the liberal arts colleges today reveals similar, yet varied, aims. If a statement of the purposes of each liberal arts college could be laid side by side, studied, and summarized, it is very probable that a statement such as the following would emerge: "This college directs attention to the special needs of students, helping them to see themselves in proper perspective and to prepare them for complete and competent living in the home and the community. All students need to develop a sense of security by developing the ability to support themselves; therefore, the college provides the opportunity for the students to prepare for a profession." Almost without exception, the statements of purpose of the liberal arts institutions provide the type of education that will permit the student to earn a living. As would be expected of a liberal arts program, emphasis is placed on that education designed to make the student a vital, knowledgeable, working member of society. To this end, the various programs recognize the need for education and training for business or for the professions. Students find curriculums designed to give them a broad liberal education within the framework of vocational pursuits.

A midwestern university defines its purposes as "an attempt to adapt its program to each student and his needs: (a) to help the student to understand himself and to discover and develop his capacities, (b) to assist him in acquiring an understanding of his position as a member of the human society and of the physical universe which he inhabits, and (c) in general to give him aid in preparation for more purposeful and effective living."

A liberal arts college in the southern part of the United States sees its purpose as "offering students foundations in three broad areas: the educational tools—the knowledges, skills, understandings and attitudes—necessary to function successfully in occupation fields; the appreciation needed to achieve greater happiness and satisfaction from life; and the service concept of responsibility."

A liberal arts college in the eastern part of the nation states its goals as "mastery of a set of basic skills of study, research, and expression; command of a body of information in several fields; possession of critical judgment and inquiring mind; dedication to worthwhile values; and an abiding desire to live a useful life."

These statements show that the liberal arts colleges provide a strong background in liberal education with professional programs for developing abilities in the field of professional competence such as teacher education, business administration, engineering, premedical, prelaw, forestry, agriculture, and the like. Some of the liberal arts colleges offer a combined liberal arts degree and a professional degree in cooperation with a large university specializing in professional education.

It is rare, indeed, to find a liberal arts college today that does not provide education in the various phases of business in a department or school of business administration. In one sense, all courses in business may be considered as business education, regardless of whether it be labeled typewriting or office management. This is the broad, liberal view of a definition of business education in which courses in business administration and courses in office occupations are just called business education. There are those, however, who believe that business education should be confined to training for office occupations as is now being done in the high schools and the business schools. This is the narrow view of business education.

A study of the bulletins of the various liberal arts colleges will show the various courses to be completed in order to attain a degree in business administration. It is a bit more difficult to discover the offerings of these schools in such courses as typewriting, shorthand, and office practice unless there is a teacher education program in business education listed as an area of study.

Because business administration is recognized as an important phase of a majority of liberal arts institutions, this report was concerned with the offerings in those subjects which provided the student with sufficient education for business to assure success in the initial jobs in office occupations. Two hundred liberal arts colleges were asked to submit answers to certain questions. Approximately 80 per cent of these colleges submitted the necessary data.

The following data present a rather accurate picture of the numbers and types of business subjects offered in the liberal arts colleges. This is a representative sample; not all liberal arts colleges were included in the survey. The subjects for which data were collected are those that are completed by students in curriculums other than in the business administration curriculum:

Question 1. Which of the following courses are available for the students in the liberal arts program of studies in your school?

	Yes	*No*		*Yes*	*No*
Typewriting I	70	22	Business Organization	60	25
Typewriting II	71	20	Business Law	22	—
Typewriting III	6	—	Business Mathematics	4	—
Shorthand I	69	22	Economics	104	2
Shorthand II	70	23	Accounting	92	6
Shorthand III	49	34	Insurance	3	—
Secretarial Practice	61	26	Marketing	8	—
Office Machines	48	32	Personnel Management	5	—
Business English	48	32	Sales and Advertising	1	—
Business Correspondence	48	33			

In addition to these, each of the following subjects was listed by at least one school: labor management, secretarial bookkeeping, finance, introduction to business, retail selling, advertising, medical shorthand, filing and records, data processing, and money and banking.

	Credits						
	0	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
Typewriting I	7	7	34	13	2	—	—
Typewriting II	6	4	35	19	1	—	2
Typewriting III	—	—	4	2	—	—	—
Shorthand I	4	1	6	45	3	2	1
Shorthand II	3	1	3	55	2	—	2
Shorthand III	2	1	2	41	1	—	1
Secretarial Practice	2	1	8	39	2	2	1
Office Machines	2	4	16	20	2	2	—
Business English	1	2	7	26	—	1	—
Business Correspondence	1	1	5	37	—	—	—
Business Organization	0	1	4	47	2	1	—
Business Law	—	1	1	11	1	—	—
Business Mathematics	—	—	2	2	—	—	—
Economics	The number of credits varied from 9 to 42 depending upon the program of studies followed.						
Accounting	The number of credits varied from 10 to 42 depending upon the program followed.						

It is interesting to note that neither in economics nor in accounting did a school report that a student might complete one course in either subject the least number was 9 in economics and 10 in accounting.

Question 2. In what school, division, or department are these courses offered?

Business Administration	55	Business	3
Education	7	Economics	8
Liberal Arts	53	Arts and Sciences	2

Approximately one-third of the reporting schools did not answer this question. Apparently, the courses are not associated with any school or divisio but are used as service courses for students in the various liberal arts program of the college.

Question 3. Are these courses offered primarily for personal or for vocational use?

Personal Use	34	Vocational Use	75

Question 4. If credit is given, can these credits be used to complete degree requirements in liberal arts?

Yes	96	No	7

This seems to follow a pattern established by many liberal arts college whereby a student may elect subjects outside the field of liberal arts. It i a healthy sign for business educators to see so many schools permitting these business credits earned to be used toward the total required for graduation. It is entirely possible that the number of schools permitting these credits to be used toward the total number of credits required for graduation will increase. It may be further assumed that approximately one third of the schools consider the business courses as service courses.

Question 5. Is a certified teacher of business subjects assigned to teach the business courses?

Yes	82	No	13

Question 6. Does this teacher devote full time to teaching business subjects?

Yes	82	No	13

It is interesting to note that many schools (about one-half) have full-time business teachers. Should the demand for these courses increase in the liberal arts colleges, the administration will want persons with a doctorate in order to have a prestige staff.

Question 7. Does your school have a teacher education program that will permit a student to earn certification to teach business subjects in the secondary school?

Yes	78	No	24

A few of the reporting schools indicated that there was a definite trend in the institution to move into a five year program for teacher certification.

There is a slight trend throughout the various schools of business administration in the United States to move into a complete graduate program and accept for admission only those students who have completed a four-year program in the liberal arts.

Logic, if not conviction, insisted upon the appropriateness of courses in typewriting, shorthand, office practice, secretarial practice, and the like, as being worthy of being offered as electives for students in a liberal arts program. No one can say with any degree of certainty that these business subjects themselves, or education and training in business, have social value. We can say with some degree of certainty, however, that education and training in business includes teaching a student to make judgments, keep records, carry on communication, and promote transactions which enable him to complete his professional activities regardless of the profession.

It is the function of organized business education to develop the ability of individuals to engage effectively in one or more of these activities by promoting the growth of the proper understandings, attitudes, appreciations, and skills. This seems to me to be the objectives of the liberal arts colleges. In addition to the important general education, the great majority of the liberal arts schools are providing education for business so that the graduate can (1) engage in initial business positions, (2) take an active, intelligent part in the social life of the community, and (3) build on his undergraduate degree.

CHAPTER 36

Business Education in the Liberal Arts Curriculum

Max O. McKitrick

The place of business education in the college liberal arts curriculum is somewhat nebulous. Since such a condition exists, it is necessary to define what is meant by a liberal arts college, to trace the development of business education in the liberal arts college, to indicate the present status of the business education program, and to make some predictions of what lies ahead for business education in the liberal arts college of the future. In addition, business education curriculums of representative colleges are described in order to demonstrate the present approaches to this problem taken by various college administrators.

The typical curriculum of a liberal arts college is composed of studies in the natural and physical sciences, the social sciences, and the humanities. When such colleges first appeared in America, they provided the basic preprofessional subjects a student needed to prepare for the ministry and other learned professions. In recent years, the accredited liberal arts college has had as one of its major goals the preparation of students to enter graduate schools so that they might specialize in one of the traditional disciplines such as English literature, history, or chemistry. In addition, those who have received bachelor of arts degrees in liberal arts colleges continue, in large numbers, to enter professional schools including those of medicine, dentistry, law, theology, library service, and business administration.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION IN THE LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE

Many so-called liberal arts colleges can be described better as "general colleges." In fact, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, one of the nation's regional accrediting agencies, recognizes the existence of such colleges. A general college is one that offers the traditional liberal arts disciplines and applied subject matter such as teacher education, home economics, and business administration. Even prior to 1900, many such colleges maintained "commercial" departments; however, credits earned in such programs usually did not count toward a bachelor's degree.

It was not until the advent of the depression in the 1930's that a movement to convert so-called "commercial" departments into regular disciplines appeared among the general colleges. About the same time, many of the traditional liberal arts colleges, faced with declining enrollments, began to establish departments of business education to meet requests of those students who did apply for admission. Other departments, such as teacher education and home economics, were added by the liberal arts colleges during the same period. Thus, the earlier general colleges and the traditional liberal arts colleges became almost indistinguishable insofar as their subject offerings were concerned. Not all liberal arts colleges, especially those located in New England, followed this trend; but it became so pronounced that, to the general public and especially to the secondary school graduate planning for college entrance, business education was one of the departments to be found in a liberal arts college.

To complicate matters even further, business education did not mean the same thing at all liberal arts colleges. At some, the program was designed to prepare young men and women for business executive positions and often was called business administration. In this article, such programs will be termed education for business. Some of the colleges which had maintained commercial departments renamed them business education departments and had as their objective the preparation of young adults for office occupations To distinguish their offerings from those available in secondary schools and at private proprietary business schools, such colleges commonly stated tha their business education curriculums prepared their graduates for executive secretarial positions. Although some colleges provided degree programs in secretarial science, most schools offered one- and two-year curriculums similar in content to those available at private business schools. Such offering are termed secretarial studies in the remainder of this discussion.

Since many of the colleges that had added programs for the office occupations about the same time expanded their offerings in teacher education the development of business teacher education curriculums was a natural outgrowth of the preceding developments. Even though some secondary school had offered business subjects earlier, it was in the 1930's that the taxpayer were demanding that typewriting, stenography, and bookkeeping be taugh in the high schools. Therefore, the liberal arts colleges previously describe found that they could make a successful contribution to the schools b providing offerings in business teacher education. Because of the rigid requirements that developed as a result of the enactment of the George-Dee and George-Barden Acts by the United States Congress, distributive education never made much headway in the liberal arts colleges that had inst tuted other programs in business education.

World War II affected adversely the progress of practically all schoo of higher learning in America; and the liberal arts colleges, as a whol suffered tremendous declines in enrollment. As a result, many business departments were closed for lack of students and faculty. When the wa ended, curriculum offerings of the preceding decade were reinstated. Som liberal arts college administrators who had resisted the trend toward bus ness education in one form or another were forced to bow to the request of the influx of veterans who demanded areas of concentration in busine administration, secretarial studies, and business teacher education. With th advent of the Korean conflict, colleges and universities were again face with the prospect of falling enrollments. Nevertheless, demand for busine education remained and curriculum offerings were expanded when men i the armed forces returned from the Far East. At the same time, college enrollments started to climb when those born during the early part of World War II became college age.

The opening of the space age in 1957 tended to halt the development of business education programs in the liberal arts colleges. As soon as the Russian sputnik was in orbit, the public began to demand that more emphasis be placed on mathematics and science in both secondary schools and colleges. Many presidents of liberal arts colleges had long held that their schools should concentrate on the humanities, sciences, and social sciences. Professors of the traditional disciplines argued in favor of a return to the traditional role of the liberal arts college. As a result of these pressures, business education in its various forms began to disappear from catalogs of liberal arts colleges. Some such colleges have converted to universities with schools of business; others have returned to the idea of the general colleges; still others have dropped portions of their business offerings, notably the secretarial courses; some schools, particularly those who started business education departments reluctantly, have returned to their roles as traditional liberal arts colleges.

PRESENT STATUS OF BUSINESS EDUCATION IN THE LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE

In order to ascertain the present status of business education in the liberal arts college, a survey was made of catalogs of representative colleges located in all sections of the United States. Most of the colleges that offer business education programs are to be found in the South and the Middle West. The trend toward discontinuing business education appears to be most pronounced in the New England and Middle Atlantic states. Since private colleges have never gained a strong foothold in the Rocky Mountain states and in the Far West, it is difficult to draw any conclusions about the status of liberal arts business education in those areas.

Many colleges that still offer curriculums in business education have reduced their offerings. The most noticeable trend has been to delete programs in secretarial studies and business teacher education. In some schools, offerings in business administration have been combined with economics. In some liberal arts colleges, business administration has lost its identity as a separate discipline; for example, at Ohio Wesleyan University, a liberal arts school with an enrollment of over 2000 full-time students, accounting courses are offered with an economics designation. The same school has discontinued offerings in business teacher education and secretarial studies.

Another tendency has been to reduce the credit granted for those business courses that are still being taught. In some colleges, typewriting is still offered, but the amount of credit has been reduced drastically. At The Defiance College, a private church-related school with an enrollment of about

700, one credit is granted for each course in typewriting; still a student must attend as many class meetings and complete the work that was required formerly of a similar course that granted three credits. Courses in shorthand and office machines have been revamped often in the same fashion.

A related trend has been to reduce the number of faculty members and sections scheduled for business subjects. Full-time faculty members have been replaced by part-time staff. For instance, at Marietta College, which enrolls about 1400 men and women, no typewriting or office machines are listed in the current catalog, and business communication and shorthand are taught only at night by part-time instructors. Although concrete evidence is difficult to secure, it is believed that some colleges now offering part-time business programs may eventually eliminate them entirely.

Many so-called practical courses have been deleted from programs designed for the education of businessmen. The following courses are typical of those which have been discontinued: introduction to business, salesmanship, retailing, insurance, and personnel management. Courses in statistics, corporation finance, and marketing are now listed often as part of the economics offerings.

Those colleges that have reduced their offerings in business often have increased general graduation requirements. The result has been that students now majoring in any area of business education are expected to take more credit hours in the humanities, the natural and physical sciences, and the social sciences. In some liberal arts schools, these additional subjects are included in courses required of all students; in others, the courses are elective so long as they are taken outside a student's area of concentration.

All liberal arts colleges are not following the trends outlined here. In some schools, there appear to be no significant changes between the business offerings of 10 years ago and those listed in current catalogs. A small minority of colleges have actually increased their business offerings; however, these schools are not representative of the groups surveyed.

BUSINESS EDUCATION OFFERINGS AT A REPRESENTATIVE GENERAL COLLEGE

The Defiance College, located in the northwestern part of Ohio, calls itself a liberal arts college. However, it has been designated as a general college by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Defiance offers a major in business administration, a major in business teacher education, and a two-year terminal program in secretarial studies. Approximately one-sixth of the total number of students enrolled are majoring in one of the three business areas; however, the two-year secretarial program has attracted only a small number of students.

At Defiance College, the program for education of businessmen is termed business administration and leads to the bachelor of science degree. It has the following curriculum requirements:

		Semester Hours
English		14
Social Studies		9
Art and Music Appreciation		4
Science and Mathematics		11
Religion and Philosophy		9
Physical Activities and Orientation		5
Business Administration major:		
Required: Introduction to Business, Principles of Accounting, Business Law	15	
Electives in Management, Marketing, and Accounting	9	24
Economics		6
Psychology		3
Business Statistics		3
Typewriting		1
Business Communications		3
Minor Area of Concentration		18
Free Electives		18
Total		128

The requirements listed may be altered slightly depending upon a student's background, but they represent the program of a typical business administration major.

The curriculum for those preparing to teach business education in high school leads to the bachelor of science degree and contains the following requirements:

		Semester Hours
English		14
Social Studies		9
Art and Music Appreciation		4
Science and Mathematics		11
Religion and Philosophy		9
Physical Education and Orientation		5
Comprehensive Business Education Major:		
Introduction to Business	3	
Shorthand, Typewriting, Office Practice	15	
Business Communications	3	
Principles of Accounting	6	
Economics	3	
Marketing	6	
Business Law	3	
Electives in Business	8	47
Education		
General Courses	6	
Psychology	6	
Methods in Business Education	3	
Supervised Student Teaching	6	21
General Electives		7
Total		127

The two-year terminal program in secretarial studies at Defiance College is designed for students who have had no training in typewriting and shorthand in high school. It consists of the following:

	Semester Hours
English	8
Social Studies	9
Economics	6
Mathematics	3
Psychology	3
Physical Activities and Orientation	5
Shorthand, Typewriting, Office Practice	15
Business Communications	3
Accounting	6
Introduction to Business	3
General Electives	4
Total	65

A diploma is granted upon completion of the above program. A student who has had business subjects in high school can secure credit for most of the skill courses by proficiency examinations. If he is able to do this, he can earn his diploma in one academic year.

BUSINESS EDUCATION OFFERINGS AT A REPRESENTATIVE LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE

The business education offerings of Marietta College, Marietta, Ohio, are typical of those found in a liberal arts college. The college has the following divisions: Humanities, Social Sciences, and Natural and Physical Sciences. Only education for businessmen (business administration) is offered. Marietta College is not approved by the State of Ohio for the preparation of business education teachers.

At Marietta College, students elect one division in which to concentrate. A business administration major would, therefore, choose social sciences as his area of concentration. In addition, he would be required to earn 12 semester credits in each of the other divisions. A typical program developed for such a student follows:

		Semester Hours
English Composition		6
Physical Education		4
Humanities Division		
Foreign Language or English Literature	6	
Electives in Art, Drama, Music, English, Modern Languages, Journalism, or Speech	6	12
Social Sciences Division		
Business Administration	18	
Economics	12	

(*Continued*)

	Semester Hours	
Education, History, Philosophy, Physical Education (theory), Political Science, Psychology, Religion, Secretarial Training, or Sociology	6	
Electives in the Division	12	48
Natural and Physical Sciences Division Laboratory Science or Mathematics	6	
Electives in Biology, Chemistry, Geology, Mathematics, or Physics	6	12
General Electives		42
Total		124

If this program is followed, a student will receive the bachelor of arts degree upon graduation. Should he desire a bachelor of science degree, he would be required to receive a departmental major (24 semester hours) in business administration.

The following courses are offered in the department of business administration: Introduction to business management, principles of accounting, mathematical bases for business decisions, business law, intermediate accounting, business enterprises, statistics, personnel administration, marketing management, business and technical report writing, cost accounting, auditing, time and motion analysis, operations analysis and cost control, industrial management, federal income tax, corporation finance, investment management, statistical methods of sales control, market research, seminar in management, advanced accounting procedures, C.P.A. problems, and special problems in controllership and taxation. All of the courses grant three semester hours of credit except principles of accounting, intermediate accounting, and business law, each of which may be taken for six hours of credit. A number of these courses are offered only in the evening, but day students are permitted to enroll in them. As was mentioned earlier, the courses available in secretarial studies are taught in the evening school only and are limited in number. They include shorthand, six hours; business writing, three hours; office management, three hours.

An analysis of the curriculum described reveals that if a student is careful in choosing his electives, he can secure the equivalent of an undergraduate major in general business, management, marketing, finance, or accounting that is offered at a typical collegiate school of business. Since Marietta College has an enrollment of approximately 1400 students, it is somewhat larger than the typical liberal arts college. However, it was selected for this survey because its curriculum reveals the possibilities of education for business in a liberal arts setting. Programs of study in smaller liberal arts colleges are similar, but they do not provide such variety of electives in business. In such schools with enrollments of under 1000, it would be possible for a student to concentrate only in general business, or perhaps also in accounting.

A BUSINESS EDUCATION CURRICULUM BASED ON THE FORD AND CARNEGIE STUDIES

Only a few colleges and universities have thus far developed their education for business curriculums in line with the recent Ford Foundation and Carnegie Corporation studies of collegiate business education. One of these institutions is Michigan State University at Oakland; this is a liberal arts unit of Michigan State University which operates almost independently of the parent university. At Michigan State University, Oakland, students enroll in 16 or 17 liberal arts courses; these include the following:

	Number of Semesters
English Composition and Analysis	1
Western Literature	2
A Foreign Language and Its Literature	4
Western Social Ideas	2
Non-Western Cultures	2
Social Sciences	2
Science Sequence	2
Art	1
Music	1

If a student can demonstrate adequate proficiency in English, he is exempt from the first requirement. A student who desires to concentrate in economic and business studies must take calculus, probability and statistics, advanced statistics, and operations research. The research course includes experience in programming for a computer. The following offerings make up the remainder of the program of a typical business administration major:

	Number of Semesters
Principles of Economics	1
Analysis of National Income	1
Capital Markets, or Business Fluctuations and Economic Forecasting	1
Business in the American Economy, or Industrial Organization and Resource Use	1
Any three of the following: Labor-Management Relations Elements of Administration Evolution of Business Enterprise International Trade and Finance	3
Business Policies	1

Business policies is required of seniors in their final semester. The case study method is used in this course and students are expected to apply the principles and tools that they have mastered in making decisions in a simulated business situation. An analysis of the total curriculum reveals that education for business majors spend about 55 per cent of their time in liberal arts subjects and the remainder in economics, business administration, and related subjects. If present trends continue, it is probable that many liberal arts colleges that offer programs in education for business will follow a pattern of courses similar to the one in operation at Michigan State University, Oakland.

THE FUTURE OF BUSINESS EDUCATION IN THE LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE

As mentioned previously, the trend at the present time seems to be away from emphasizing business education programs in liberal arts colleges. It is difficult to predict whether or not this trend will continue in the future. Since the college population explosion is already at hand, indications are that liberal arts colleges will survive without programs of a vocational nature. Nevertheless, many students requesting admission to such colleges are demanding that they be prepared for the business occupations; about one-sixth of those currently enrolled in colleges and universities are taking some type of business curriculum.

It would seem that the trend to discontinue business teacher education and secretarial studies in liberal arts colleges will accelerate. The former curriculum will appear largely in state-supported colleges of education and business; while preparation of secretaries will be left to junior colleges, community colleges, vocational proprietary business schools, and vocational schools. To satisfy those who seek to be educated as businessmen, the liberal arts colleges will probably either emphasize curriculums centered in economics and related social sciences or will accept only those students willing to elect an arts program designed to prepare them for entering a graduate collegiate school of business. Because of the special requirements of their supporting constituencies, a small number of liberal arts colleges are likely to become either general colleges or small universities with separate schools of business.

CHAPTER 37

The Independent Business School Curriculum

Milo O. Kirkpatrick, Jr.

The present emphasis on education beyond the high school level for all American youth, and the resulting pressure upon colleges to take care of the expanding enrollment have affected all post-high schools. The independent business school has made, and will continue to make, an important contribution to the educational advancement of young men and women.

Business schools offer courses of various length in secretarial, accounting, business administration, and office machines areas. The existence of the schools is based on their meeting the needs of those seeking an education for employment in the world of business. There are currently more than 1000 business schools in the United States, of which more than 200 have been accredited by the Accrediting Commission for Business Schools. Accreditation is a means of self-evaluation by the schools and inspection by appointed authorities. It serves as an impetus for schools to raise the quality of their educational program.

CURRICULUM CONSIDERATIONS

Level and Length of Program. In the formulation of the curriculum for business school courses, definite decisions must be made regarding the type of school which administrators seek to operate. There is a current tendency to classify business schools as one-year, two-year, or junior colleges of business. Naturally, the category in which a school administrator classifies his institution will have a decided bearing upon the formulation of courses of study.

Many schools stress very strongly the longer and more inclusive programs in which they are able to prepare young people more adequately for better business positions. A few schools tend to stress short intensive courses of study. A decision must be made by the school officials whether to offer the short or the more comprehensive programs.

Admission Requirements. There is a rather common misconception on the part of the general public that anyone can attend a business school, provided he has money for his tuition. Most schools do require an applicant to be a high school graduate or to have achieved the equivalent on some recognized testing program. Admission counselors of schools quite often advise prospective students about the type of programs they should pursue. The nature of the course has a definite relationship to the applicant's acceptability.

Most programs of study require a policy of selective admission. There is a trend in business schools to require some type of admission testing to determine an applicant's chances of successfully completing a business course.

Admission Frequency. In the past, the majority of business schools have advertised that a student could enter any Monday; however, in recent years there has been a decided trend toward specific periodic enrollment dates. The majority of schools now accept students on a monthly, quarterly, or semester basis. The system of quarter or semester enrollment greatly facilitates the scheduling of classes and is sounder educational practice.

Specific entrance dates permit the school to schedule classes more advantageously and also enable the school to use the lecture plan of instruction. Schools that take students at frequent intervals must rely heavily upon the individual instruction plan of teaching. Both plans have merit; however, there are students who do not possess the necessary initiative or background to advance normally under the individual instruction plan. The school must make specific policies concerning its admissions and the type of instruction to be used, as these factors have great impact upon curriculum development.

Faculty. The strength of any educational institution lies in the competency of its faculty members as they perform their teaching duties in the classroom. Business schools are in competition with high schools and other colleges for qualified teachers; therefore, business schools must maintain a competitive salary scale to obtain instructors who can make a worthwhile contribution to the curriculum.

In many states, there are regulations which require business schools to employ teachers with degrees as faculty members. It is not uncommon to find business college instructors possessing the master's, doctor's, or other advanced degrees. Workshops and educational conventions are held in order that business teachers might keep abreast of the latest teaching techniques and educational materials available. Obtaining and holding competent faculty members is a primary factor in the development of business school curriculums and is of utmost importance if schools plan to offer the more technical types of programs.

Employment Opportunities. Every business school administrator has a knowledge of local and nearby employment opportunities because he is being contacted constantly by business firms for office employees. This close association with employers enables the administrator to make evaluations concerning the types of training needed in his locality. Surveys can be conducted to determine the types of skills and knowledges needed by local employers. Economic conditions also serve as a factor in measuring the employment opportunities in a given area. Particular attention must be given to employment opportunities in the construction of the business school curriculum.

High School Business Training. The high schools have expanded and strengthened their business education departments. In turn, business schools must adapt their curriculum to those students who have had business courses in high school. To enroll a person who has had two years of shorthand with above average grades in high school and have him repeat beginning shorthand in a business school is questionable practice. Allowing advanced standing for previous training in typewriting at the high school level is also a matter which deserves serious thought.

State Regulations. A number of states have laws and regulations governing the operation of independent business schools. In some of these states, minimum standards are prescribed which must be taken into consideration by the administration in the development of the curriculum.

Association and Accreditation Considerations. The United Business Schools Association, with a membership of more than 500 independent business schools, has basic standards for membership. Among these standards are certain suggested titles for courses of study and suggested subject inclusion within these courses. This information may be obtained by writing the United Business Schools Association, 1518 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. Schools seeking accreditation must also consider the criteria used in evaluating the educational programs in the development of their own curriculums. The accreditation criteria may be obtained by writing The Accrediting Commission for Business Schools, Suite 406, 1518 K Street, N.W., Washington 5, D.C.

Suggested Curriculum Outlines. The following outlined courses of study are presented to give curriculum committees a basis for discussion in the determination of courses to be offered in their respective schools. Exact subject titles, as well as course titles, should be decided on the basis of a school's own objectives. No attempt has been made to show clock hours or quarter hours. The nature of some of the subjects listed would make it essential to set up two periods each day to cover the contents of the subject.

EXECUTIVE SECRETARIAL, 18 Months

First Quarter

Principles of Accounting
Beginning Business Math
Introduction to Business
Intermediate Typewriting
English Review

Second Quarter

Accounting Practice
Intermediate Business Math
Beginning Shorthand
Advanced Typewriting
Advanced English Composition

Third Quarter

Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Business Law
Payroll Accounting
Business Correspondence
Office Management

Fourth Quarter

Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Business Law II
Income Tax
Economics
Personnel Management

Fifth Quarter

Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Insurance
Salesmanship
Electives

Sixth Quarter

Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Indexing and Filing
Office Practice
Electives

Electives:
Beginning Typewriting
Typewriting Speed Building

EXECUTIVE SECRETARIAL (*continued*)

Shorthand Review
Personality Development
Vocabulary Building
Office Machines

Minimum Skill Requirements:
60 wam in Typewriting
120 wam in Shorthand

MEDICAL SECRETARIAL, 18 Months

First Quarter

English Review
Intermediate Typewriting
Anatomy and Physiology
Psychology
Personality Development

Second Quarter

Advanced English Composition
Advanced Typewriting
Medical Terminology
Beginning Shorthand
Beginning Business Math

Third Quarter

Business Correspondence
Psychology II
Medical Procedures
Principles of Accounting
Shorthand Dictation and Transcription

Fourth Quarter

Office Management
Business Law
Accounting Practice
Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Elective

Fifth Quarter

Economics
Insurance
Medical Shorthand
Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Elective

Sixth Quarter

Indexing and Filing
Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Office Practice
Electives

Electives:
Beginning Typewriting
Typewriting Speed Building
Shorthand Review
Business Law II
Vocabulary Building
Office Machines

Minimum Skill Requirements:
60 wam in Typewriting
120 wam in Shorthand

GENERAL SECRETARIAL, 12 Months

(Recommended to students who have not had previous training in shorthand.)

First Quarter

Beginning Shorthand
English Review
Intermediate Typewriting
Beginning Business Math
Personality Development

Second Quarter

Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Advanced English Composition
Advanced Typewriting
Principles of Accounting
Elective

Third Quarter

Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Business Correspondence
Accounting Practice
Business Law
Elective

Fourth Quarter

Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Indexing and Filing
Office Practice
Electives

Electives:
Beginning Typewriting
Typewriting Speed Building
Psychology
Vocabulary Building
Office Machines

Minimimum Skill Requirements:
50 wam in Typewriting
100 wam in Shorthand

Junior Secretarial, 9 Months

(Available to high school graduates who have had one year of shorthand and typewriting with grades of B or better.)

First Quarter

English Review
Beginning Business Math
Intermediate Typewriting
Shorthand Review
Personality Development

Second Quarter

Business Correspondence
Principles of Accounting
Advanced Typewriting
Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Elective

Third Quarter

Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Indexing and Filing
Office Practice
Electives

Electives:
Typewriting Speed Building
Office Machines
Vocabulary Building
Psychology
Minimum Skill Requirements:
50 wam in Typewriting
100 wam in Shorthand

Advanced Secretarial, 9 Months

(Available to high school graduates who have had two years of shorthand and typewriting with grades of B or better.)

First Quarter

Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Advanced English Composition
Advanced Typewriting
Beginning Business Math
Personality Development

Second Quarter

Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Business Correspondence
Principles of Accounting
Business Law
Elective

Third Quarter

Shorthand Dictation and Transcription
Indexing and Filing
Office Practice
Electives

Electives:
Typewriting Speed Building
Office Machines
Vocabulary Building
Psychology
Minimum Skill Requirements:
60 wam in Typewriting
120 wam in Shorthand

Business Administration, 18 Months

First Quarter

Beginning Business Math
English Review
Principles of Accounting
Intermediate Typewriting
Introduction to Business

Second Quarter

Intermediate Business Math
Advanced English Composition
Partnership Accounting
Advanced Typewriting
Psychology

Third Quarter

Advanced Business Math
Business Correspondence
Corporation Accounting
Business Law
Payroll Accounting

Fourth Quarter

Cost Accounting
Income Tax
Economics
Business Law II
Elective

Fifth Quarter

Principles of Advertising
Economics II

BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION (*continued*)

Effective Speaking
Salesmanship
Investments

Sixth Quarter

Creative Advertising
Insurance
Business Finance
Retail Management
Personnel Management

Electives:
Beginning Typewriting
Typewriting Speed Building
Office Machines
Advanced Income Tax
Vocabulary Building
Credits and Collections
Business Report Writing
Minimum Skill Requirements:
40 wam in Typewriting

JUNIOR ACCOUNTING, 12 Months

First Quarter

Principles of Accounting
Beginning Business Math
English Review
Intermediate Typewriting
Introduction to Business

Second Quarter

Partnership Accounting
Intermediate Business Math
Advanced English Composition
Advanced Typewriting
Office Machines

Third Quarter

Corporation Accounting
Advanced Business Math
Business Correspondence
Psychology
Elective

Fourth Quarter

Cost Accounting
Income Tax
Business Law
Payroll Accounting
Elective

Electives:
Beginning Typewriting
Typewriting Speed Building
Psychology II
Economics
Accounting Practice
Penmanship
Minimum Skill Requirements:
40 wam in Typewriting

SENIOR ACCOUNTING, 12 Months

(A continuation of Junior Accounting)

First Quarter

Intermediate Accounting
Math of Accounting
Statistics
Business Law II
Office Management

Second Quarter

Advanced Intermediate Accounting
Math of Accounting II
Advanced Income Tax
Economics
Elective

Third Quarter

Advanced Accounting
Auditing
Insurance
Salesmanship
Credits and Collections

Fourth Quarter

Cost Accounting II
Economics II
Business Finance
Personnel Management
Elective

Electives:
Automotive Accounting
IBM Accounting
Retail Management
Investments
Public Speaking
Office Machines

CHAPTER 38

Supervision of Student Teaching

Dean R. Malsbary

Supervision, as the word is most commonly used, is the direction and critical evaluation of instruction—particularly instruction in the public schools. Supervision of student teaching, therefore, is the direction and critical evaluation of the instruction given by student teachers.

In bold terms, it appears that the over-all purpose of the student-teaching program is to provide the student teacher, under capable supervision, with a broad professional teaching experience that approaches closely his future work in the teaching profession. More specifically, it can be said that the objectives of the program should include—

1. Giving the student teacher an opportunity to observe superior teaching in the subject field in which he expects to teach.
2. Giving the student teacher an opportunity to gain teaching experience, under capable supervision, in his major subject.
3. Helping the student teacher become acquainted with a superior secondary-school program.
4. Giving the student teacher the opportunity to observe and, to some extent, participate in, specifically, such parts of the secondary-school programs as guidance, administration, the library, and the extracurricular activities.
5. Giving the student teacher the opportunity to evaluate his teaching based on the performance or achievement of his students and based on evaluations of his own performance by qualified experienced teachers.

In order to assure that the goals of the student teaching will be realized, one of the prime responsibilities of the college supervisor of business teacher education is to make certain that the student teacher is as thoroughly prepared as possible before he goes to his student-teaching position. No student teacher should be expected to "practice" on boys and girls until he has—

1. Obtained a broad general education. He must have had work in the humanities, in the arts, and in the fields of mathematics and science in order to be prepared for teaching. It must always be remembered that every person in the teaching profession is first a teacher—and then a teacher, for example, of business or of mathematics. Every young person entering the profession should be expected to have a solid background in the liberal arts.
2. Obtained a strong background in the subject content of his major field. Thus, a young person who plans to teach business should have, during his four year program, at least 30 semester hours in business and related subjects that provide him with the subject content background for his future teaching career. It should be pointed out, in addition, that this background should include work in several different areas of business—in accounting, industrial administration, marketing, business law, secretarial work, economics, and other content subjects. It is doubtful whether piling up a large number of

credits in any one area of business at the expense of a broader business education provides the subject content background that is needed by a young person planning to teach high school business subjects.

3. Obtained a good background in professional education, as provided specifically by courses in foundations, curriculum, special methods, and testing and evaluation. No young person should be permitted to begin student teaching until he has developed an understanding of business education as a professional teaching field. He should be conversant with, and be able to make use of, the professional literature in business education, know the professional organizations and associations that serve the field, and know something about the leadership of outstanding business educators and the contributions they have made. Can you conceive of any young doctor going to his internship who would not know, and be able to make use of, medical journals or periodicals; who would not know the names, work of, or areas served by the professional medical organizations; or who would not know the names and major contributions of the outstanding physicians in the United States? Yet, sometimes business teacher educators appear content in their methods classes with developing only the ability to apply specific teaching techniques and to construct lesson plans, rather than with developing a broad understanding of business education.

4. Passed inspection as a likely teaching candidate—as one who has, in the judgment of qualified and experienced personnel, the personal and intellectual qualities believed necessary for success as a business teacher. Certainly it would appear to be the supervisor's job to assure himself that young persons who are assigned to do their student teaching under his direction are in satisfactory physical and mental health, have themselves achieved academic success and have met successfully the rigors of the academic life, have an interest in young people with whom they will work, will in all likelihood be well received by both students and by fellow teachers, and have a basic and fundamental interest in teaching as a life's work (rather than as "vest-pocket insurance protection" in case he cannot get another position or make other satisfactory connections).

If such objectives as providing the student teacher with an opportunity to observe superior teaching in a superior secondary school and to teach under capable supervision are to be realized, the supervisor must exercise his best judgment in selecting student teaching stations. It is obvious that his job should be obtaining the cooperation of (a) superior secondary schools—those recognized generally to have superior programs, facilities, and staff, and (b) superior business teachers within those schools. Unfortunately, administrative difficulties and the distant locations of schools having superior programs and staff, relative to their availability to the student teachers, are difficult to overcome . Then, too, in many situations, supervisors must set up student teaching programs in schools that they do not consider entirely satisfactory and in which the teachers fall far short of the superior rating. This fact, however, unfortunate as it is, should not deter the supervisor from constantly attempting to achieve the most nearly ideal teaching stations for the student teachers for whom he is responsible.

If the placement of the student teachers is actually such an important part of the supervisor's total job, what, in general, characterizes a superior secondary school program? Such a school should feature—

1. An up-to-date curriculum and a program designed to meet the needs of its students.

2. A teaching staff that is well prepared; well respected by the students; experienced; and consciously professional, as evidenced by participation in such activities as engaging in committee work and research, participating in the programs and activities of professional associations, and the like.

3. An up-to-date and modern physical plant, providing accommodations that enable a capable staff to house a modern program.

The student should be provided with an opportunity to observe superior teaching. How is this to be brought about? In many cases, students have had a one- or two-week period of observation prior to their student teaching experience and thus have already had some opportunity to observe experienced and capable teachers in action. In any event, it would seem that the student should spend perhaps the first week or a reasonable period of time observing the instruction of the teacher under whom he will do his student teaching, who, we would hope, is a master teacher. He should pay particular attention to the planning techniques and practices of the teacher, the questioning technique the teacher employs, the way the teacher regains the attention of students who drift away from the lesson or how he maintains their attention, the specific techniques the master teacher uses to assist students to gain an understanding of difficult points, the type and nature of the chalkboard work and use of audio-visual aids, and the evaluation techniques used by the teacher. Student teachers should be encouraged to observe carefully the student response to the teacher's instruction and to learn to judge when learning is taking place and the extent to which it is taking place. This can come only through experience; but under the guidance of, and through observing the instruction by, master teachers, a young teacher is better able to recognize evidences of real learning.

PLANNING FOR VARIETY OF EXPERIENCE

Although observing the teaching of a master experienced teacher is beneficial, one does not learn to teach through observation alone, any more than one learns to swim by watching others. Thus, the primary aim of any good student teaching program must be to give the student teacher as much opportunity as possible to teach. It is obvious, of course, that the actual teaching performance should be the fruit of long and careful lesson planning with the supervising teacher. The supervising teacher, too, must understand thoroughly what he is expected to do and what his responsibilities are, particularly in relation to those of the college supervisor. Only in this way can the supervising teacher feel completely free to work with the student teacher and help him gain the most from the experience.

The student teaching program that this writer supervises is a six-week experience which is planned for the student in March and April. In order to enable the supervising teacher to gain an understanding of what he may expect of the student teacher—what he may expect him to do—he is provided with three items that this writer, as the college supervisor, goes over with him. One is an eight-page document called *The Program of Student Teaching—A Statement for the Principals and Teachers in Cooperating Schools,* which gives the general overview of the University's student teaching program. Another is *An Evaluation Sheet for Student-Teachers,* which will be discussed later. Of direct interest to the high school supervising teacher is the statement, *Suggestions to the High School Supervising Teacher—Business Education.* Because of its relevance to the subject of this article, "Supervision of Student Teaching," it is reprinted here exactly as it is used in the student-teaching program. It will be noted that the types of experiences desired for the student teacher and the responsibilities of each of the parties participating in the student teaching experience are specified in detail.

SUGGESTIONS TO HIGH SCHOOL SUPERVISING TEACHER

Dear ______________________:

We very much appreciate your willingness to work with ______________________.
Attached are:

A General Statement of the University's Student-Teaching Program. This is an overview of the program and is designed to acquaint you with its nature and objectives.

A Student-Teacher Evaluation Sheet. This is the form on which you can rate the student teacher on the various points suggested. The form should be completed at the end of the student-teaching experience and returned to me personally or to my office through the mail.

(Note: If you wish to discuss with the student teacher the ratings you assign, feel perfectly free to do so. This is often a good technique and provides a fine learning experience for the student teacher.)

Suggestions As to the Nature of the Business Student Teaching Experience

In order to provide a complete and well-rounded teaching experience for the student teacher, the following suggestions that may be of some assistance to you are offered:

1. Put the student teacher to work the first day he enters the class. During the first week, the student teacher should be learning the names of the students and something of each student's interests, background, and abilities. He should observe the supervising teacher's teaching methods and techniques, and review the particular subject content of the unit of work being taught. He can assist the supervising teacher by giving help to individual students, marking papers, checking attendance, and working closely in other ways with the supervising teacher.

2. After the first week, the student teacher should have, under the direction of the supervising teacher, full responsibility for the instruction of the class. That is, the

student teacher should teach the class each day for the full time, make all assignments, manage the class, mark, return, and discuss written work and tests, assign special reports, plan committee work, and the like.

3. During this five-week period (six weeks, less the first week of orientation and "break-in"), it is suggested that the student teacher engage in the following activities in order to gain experience in the various aspects of the teaching process:

a. Prepare complete lesson plans on the material to be taught. The student teacher should provide the supervising teacher with a copy of each unit and/or daily plan prepared.
b. Present the day's lesson under the supervision of the supervising teacher.
c. Have conferences with the supervising teacher who can bring to his attention phases of the student teacher's teaching that need to be improved and offer other suggestions to assist him in becoming a good teacher. (Some supervising teachers follow the practice of supplying the student teacher with written comments and criticisms, a practice that is quite effective, particularly if the student teacher has several classes in a single day with little time for individual discussion with the supervising teacher.)
d. Be completely alone and in charge of the class, with but occasional help from the supervising teacher during the last two or three weeks of the student teaching experience.
e. Construct and administer one or more tests or examinations covering material that has been taught and measuring degree to which objectives were realized.
f. Mark, return, and discuss the tests or examinations and assign student grades.
g. Conduct drills and exercises for specific purposes (as in typewriting: for building speed, increasing accuracy, increasing finger dexterity, increasing efficiency of use of various parts of the typewriter, etc.)
h. Plan work with student committees. It is suggested that the student teacher should do some planning and work with a bulletin board committee.
i. Use audio-visual aids as an integral part of the instructional process. (Such aids as films and filmstrips are obtainable by the student teacher from the University without charge during the student-teaching period.)
j. Provide for individual differences within the class, differentiating assignments and giving individual help to slower students and individual attention to the brighter students.
k. Make and follow-up on outside assignments. It is suggested that homework assignments be carefully planned and that they be previewed with the class.
l. Plan and conduct student discussion, perhaps a panel on a topic appropriate to the unit being taught.

If the student teacher has the above experiences, the supervising teacher will be able to complete the Evaluation Sheet objectively, and the student teacher will have had a well-rounded teaching experience under competent supervision.

The likelihood is that I shall pay three visits to the school. A short visit the first week the student teacher is with you, and then two longer visits during the later stages of the student teaching experience, at which time I shall be able to observe the student teacher's teaching. However, the work and supervision done by the supervising teacher who works closely with the student teacher is far more important in producing a good teaching experience than the college supervisor's visits. There is no substitute for a

good high school supervising teacher—he or she is the most important person in the supervision aspect of the program, as the University is gratefully aware.

Therefore, once again, thank you so much for assisting us in giving our business teacher trainee careful, complete, and thorough preparation to teach. The student teacher and I both look forward to working with you.

Sincerely,
(Signature of College Supervisor of Trainees)

An important part of supervision of student teaching lies in the final evaluation of the student teacher. Actually, evaluation has been occurring all along and through the experience—and on the part of many persons. The student teacher evaluated the teaching of the supervising teacher—at least in his own mind. The student teacher has been evaluating, based on what he has learned in his methods work and in conference with his supervising teacher, his own teaching performance. The supervising teacher has been evaluating constantly—daily—the work of the student teacher; and the college supervisor, in his visits, has been evaluating the supervising teacher, the student teacher, and the total student teaching situation.

Actually, though, when one speaks of the final evaluation, one thinks of the written form completed by the supervising teacher, *An Evaluation Sheet for Student Teaching,* to which previous reference has been made. This form is a four-page rating scale developed specifically for evaluating student teachers. It is divided into two sections to evaluate (a) the professional competencies of the student teacher and (b) the personal qualifications of the student teacher—interests and attitudes, for example. After the supervisor completes the rating, he is encouraged to discuss them with the student teacher if he so desires. If not, he returns his completed rating form to the college supervisor who gives those ratings considerable weight in preparing his final evaluation of the student teacher and in reducing the over-all performance to a letter grade.

In the process of supervision, it should be emphasized that the most important person is the high school supervising teacher. It is he who is with the student teacher throughout his entire performance, and it is he who is in a position to make the finest contribution to the development of the student teacher and who can make the necessary comments, criticisms, and suggestions at the time he observes lapses or faulty presentations. It is also he who can instill in the student teacher a sense of preparedness and a professional attitude that will last long after the student teacher has forgotten specific teaching techniques. The general supervision of the college supervisor is, of course, important; for he, because of his qualifications and experience, can be of assistance both to the supervising teacher and to the student teacher. Nonetheless, perhaps the college supervisor's most important task is not the specific supervision he offers during the student teaching experience, but, rather, the care with which he selects the schools that provide the most nearly ideal student teaching situations and that assign the finest business teachers to serve as the supervising teachers under whom his young teachers prepare.

CHAPTER 39

The Selection and Assignment of Staff Members

Lloyd V. Douglas

Make no mistake about it—the staff is the most important single factor in any department. No department can be better than its staff. And, if you are an administrator, you should never overlook the fact that any success you may have is directly the result of a good staff—and is just as strictly limited by a poor staff!

Admittedly very few, if any, administrators can have unrestricted choice in selecting staff members today; limitations of available supply, financial limitations, time limitations, and various prejudices alone are factors which severely restrict one's choice. But even if one had complete freedom of choice, there still would remain that very serious limitation due to errors in judgment.

The *selection* of a staff member is an especially important act; since it is a "once only" proposition, the results of judgments made at that time remain with the department as long as the staff member remains. Neverthless, it is probable that the future and continuing *assignment* of the staff member to departmental, college, and professional duties, responsibilities, and opportunities for continued growth actually is even more important; this often extends over many years and becomes a determining factor in the ultimate success of the staff member.

Certainly not everything pertinent to the subject can be mentioned in a few pages; these suggestions are presented, however, in the belief that thoughtful attention to them will materially add to the effectiveness of the staff selection and assignment process for college administrators.

FIRST—KNOW WHAT YOU REALLY WANT

Your immediate need may be, for instance, an additional accounting instructor. But, of course, you also are going to be looking for certain qualities and potentials in this addition to your staff—you will do well to have these relatively intangible limitations or criteria rather well defined in your own mind before starting your search. Many potential applicants might be available who are really good accounting instructors, any one of whom possesses the proper credentials and any one of whom has the potential for real success in an environment which is proper for *him*. Yet, it may well be that no one of them possesses the optimum combination of potentials which will assure success in *your* particular situation.

Thus, the total environment into which you are bringing the new staff member becomes an extremely important one—both to him and to you and your staff. Obviously, it is something which is complex and filled with many intangibles and thus not readily susceptible to objective measurement or description. This should not deter one from having the total picture rather well defined in his own mind at least. Having done so, thoughtfully, you are perhaps ready to start the process of selection.

A truly successful departmental staff is one which functions as a whole. It may not always function smoothly, for certainly differences of opinion and conflicting ideas and theories are at the very foundation of progress; but it must, necessarily, move forward as a whole if it is truly to succeed. And as it does progress, each individual staff member must and will progress with it, and as a part of it, if he is to merit appointment to the staff. This means that, in addition to needing a good accounting instructor to fit a particular niche in your program, you also need someone (a) who will be able to adjust to, and become a part of, your total departmental staff, and (b) who your present staff will adjust to, and accept fully (at least eventually!), as an integral part of itself.

Admittedly many supplementary considerations arise. Possibly, for instance, recent changes may have occurred in general college policies and objectives. Your college and your department probably already have formulated a guiding philosophy or set of objectives. Probably it will assist you in knowing what you really want if you review them again—or if necessary, reformulate them. It could be, of course, that due to new conditions your present staff is "out of step," in which case you may have an especially difficult task on your hands.

SECOND—COMMUNICATE

This is a two-way proposition—it is more than simply "telling." Although complete communication (which of course is most desirable) cannot very well be accomplished during the selection process, an attempt to approach it should be made. Both parties to any resulting appointment tend to suffer later when it stems from incomplete or misleading or misunderstood information. During the selection process two distinct opportunities present themselves for communication—for acquiring, on your part, the needed information on which to base your selection, and for conveying to the applicant an understanding of the total situation to which he is being invited to give his consideration as an applicant and possible appointee.

A written job description should be made available to applicants, setting forth the more important specifics of the requirements you have in mind. These will vary with positions, but customarily include items such as educational and experience requirements, professional rank available, salary schedule, anticipated date of starting duties, probable teaching assignment, need for personal interview with any available allowance for expenses involved, and similar specifics pertinent to the appointment.

In addition, but separate from the technical position description, it certainly is desirable also to make available *condensed* information about many related environmental factors which obviously will be of potential interest to most prospective staff members. This can best be material especially prepared for this purpose—specific, concise, informal, and frank. It might well refer to such things as the student body; the total faculty; community living conditions, transportation, cultural, and other characteristics; administrative policies which may be pertinent; future growth or plans for the college; faculty participation in policy making; and any of many other potentially significant factors of which the college may well be proud.

In stating these items of supplementary information, strict attention must be given to eliminating anything misleading. The very nature of the purpose being served would indicate heavy emphasis in it on the more favorable considerations of the total teaching situation. Nevertheless, should an obviously unfavorable situation exist, it would be dishonest and unethical not to mention it.

In the interests of efficiency for everyone concerned, it should be quite permissible for the job description and the supplementary information to be appropriately duplicated; there normally should be a brief accompanying personal letter.

A personal interview on your campus should complete your task of communicating fully with the applicant. Normally this should be a positive requirement prior to actual appointment. And always remember that such an interview is a two-way proposition! Not only does it give you a better opportunity to understand fully and evaluate the applicant, but it helps assure him of a complete understanding of the total situation into which he would be going; it is at this point that complete understanding and complete frankness are most important for both parties. Future satisfaction of both is important—and much of this depends upon full knowledge prior to the appointment.

When a personal interview is made upon your request and at your campus, ethics require that you believe there is a strong likelihood you will offer the appointment to the applicant. While the question of which party should bear the expenses involved has good reasons favoring each side, you normally will be best served by offering to pay at least a major portion of them; this is especially true should you find it desirable to extend the invitation to two or more equally qualified candidates.

While customarily termed an *interview,* this phase of the selection process might well be considered more of a "visit to the campus." Certainly the applicant should converse freely with various administrative officials and faculty members and have an opportunity to observe as many parts of the college and community activities and environment as time permits. Quite often an informal meal, snack, or coffee break with several staff members present pays real dividends in terms of better understandings of the all-important personal factors involved.

THIRD—COMPLETE THE SELECTION PROCESS

Once the first two steps have been carefully carried out, your own final decision is likely to be almost automatic; either the applicant is acceptable and desirable, or he is not. In the latter case, it is of course necessary to repeat these steps with another selected applicant.

While you, as department head or other responsible administrative officer, may actually have the responsibility of making and implementing the final decision, this should not imply that the advice of others interested should be ignored; on the contrary, it should be solicited and duly considered. An extremely important judgment decision is being made and must necessarily be made on the basis of relatively subjective evaluations; since human judgments vary widely under such conditions, you will be remiss in your administrative responsibilities if you fail to consider the judgments of other interested parties prior to making your decision.

The final decision is preferably arrived at while the applicant is still on your campus; this can expedite the needed "meeting of minds" and materially simplify answering questions that may arise. Yet it may well be preferable to allow further time for consideration; neither party should make a final commitment when any serious doubt still remains. At this stage, though, final decision should be made rapidly.

A final and most important step in completing the selection process is that of reducing all significant factors affecting the appointment to written form. This is far less important as a contractual item (which of course it *may* be) than as a means of avoiding misunderstandings and of giving each party a clear and exact statement for future reference should pertinent questions arise. Details to be included will necessarily vary with situations, but would include such matters as salary, title, rank, and beginning date for the appointment. It also may well include explanations of present policies about group insurance, retirement and social security, summer employment, and similar considerations directly affecting the financial responsibilities and dealings between the two parties. Considerable care should be taken to see that *all* details of significance are included. This may well be in the form of a letter offering and describing the appointment, to which a response is requested from the appointee.

ASSIGNING THE STAFF MEMBER TO SELECTED DUTIES

The assignment of staff members to selected duties again continues to be a two-party agreement; the college must be properly served, and the continuing professional development of the individual as a part of the departmental staff also must be served. The development of each is heavily tied to the development of the other. Any time the development of one far surpasses the development of the other, the question of severance of relationship is likely to arise—and probably should!

The beginning assignment should be substantially agreed upon prior to the appointment of the new staff member; this usually is possible. Thus, it naturally becomes a "starter" which assures a relatively smooth and satisfying beginning period for the new staff member. Probably this beginning load should not be too heavy, thus permitting the new appointee opportunity to experience satisfaction in his work in spite of the extra demands on his time which are likely to accompany a change to a new professional situation and environment. Certainly, though, it should approximate a normal full load.

Increased responsibilities or duties should be definitely planned for the future—perhaps starting with the second semester or term for some and later for others. While this may at first appear to be mostly for the benefit of the college, it psychologically also has a distinct place in the satisfaction and growth of the individual staff member as an integral part of the department and the college; no really worthy staff member wishes to defer long carrying his full share of responsibilities, and no worthy administrator wishes to keep him from doing so.

However, most special or outside-the-classroom responsibilities and duties should have high correlation with the personal interests and desires of the staff member accepting them—and it is far preferable to initiate them in the spirit of "acceptance" than of "assignment"! This may not be completely feasible at times, but it is a standard which can and should be approached most of the time.

Such a policy should in no way imply a static or inflexible situation over a longer period of time; the requirements for effective operation of any college or collegiate department frequently change rapidly in today's rapidly moving world, and all worthy professional people recognize and respect this need. Fortunately, these same people tend to be so constituted that they gain most professional satisfaction from situations which contain new elements of desirable change, challenge, and professional growth! The effective administrator recognizes this and gives due attention to it in adjusting both increased and new responsibilities to his staff members. It is through attention to such factors that the individual staff member is enabled to grow in professional value to the college, to gain pride in himself and his work, and thus, to continue to maintain his place on the staff under satisfying conditions.

Perhaps a word of caution is appropriate at this point: ordinarily each staff member does have major professional interests and, while these major interests may change as time passes, at no time should other assigned duties and responsibilities become so heavy as to cause him to feel he is being impeded in his best development in his current major area of interest. That is why such assignments should be made on an "acceptance" basis, essentially, and to be considered as "two-way" development—that is, development of the needs of the department and the college, and also of the individual staff member.

Continuing and future assignments to normal instructional duties may or may not permanently continue along the lines of the beginning assignment. This is a matter of human relations and of individuality. There are those of us whose greatest contributions and professional successes will stem from a lifetime devoted to constant improvement of our knowledge and work in some one relatively limited area, phase, or segment of education. There are others among us who tend to tire of ever-greater attention to the details growing out of expanding knowledge and ability in one area, and who are happiest, best challenged, and most productive when assigned to relatively new fields of work for which we may possess basic qualifications. Probably both types of people are equally valuable, and the effective administrator must attempt to so arrange staff assignments over a period of time as to provide maximum opportunity for the individual development of both types of staff members.

One normally assumes (and desires) that future professional development will continue along the general lines of the beginning assignment given to the staff member and makes assignments accordingly. However, it is most important that the administrator attempt to keep properly informed and to make valid judgments relative to the most likely types of assignment interests and needs of each staff member in order that assignments may make a maximum contribution to the total eventual professional development of the staff member. Frequently, the decision over such interests and needs is best made by the staff member himself. Yet the observant administrator who is a leader can also be of material assistance to the staff member through such things as suggested appropriate exploratory-type assignments and normal conversations with the staff member.

Maximum contribution to the ultimate success of the individual staff member should always be an important controlling (although not exclusive) consideration in making staff assignments; too often administrators fail to realize fully that no department can be better than its staff and that a good staff member continues to be good only to the extent that he continues to improve professionally.

Let us frankly admit—and even welcome the fact!—that it is quite possible that this attention to maximum professional development of the individual staff member may eventually mean loss of the staff member to greater opportunities elsewhere. If you, as an administrator, can feel you have materially contributed to his success, you should feel personally satisfied with your role in education. At the same time, in all probability, you, your department, and your college have materially profited from the challenge, the motivation, the ideas, and the good work which have accrued during the time he has been a member of your staff; it is quite probable that your resulting situation will still be better than it would have been had you failed to develop such a desired staff member.

Perhaps an even more optimistic and challenging viewpoint to take would be that you may, by meeting competition and retaining his services, be able to develop these apparently worthy and needed greater opportunities for him right in your own department or your own college. In so doing, you will most likely further improve your own department and college and aid in assuring its continued future effectiveness—as well as materially adding to the recognition and success of yourself as an efficient, effective, and much-desired college department head or administrator.

CHAPTER 40

The Purchase and Replacement of Machines and Equipment for College Departments

Lars G. Crandall

For many college departments, the essentials are teachers, textbooks, students, and classrooms. However, for some departments there is another significant essential—machines and equipment. This is apparent when considering the needs of a business education department. The major part of the budget for capital expenditures in a college of business is most likely to be appropriated for the purchase and replacement of machines and equipment in the department that offers instruction for office occupations.

Wise expenditure of funds so appropriated becomes the responsibility of those charged with the supervision and administration of this department. The question may appropriately be asked, "What are some of the factors to be considered in the purchase and replacement of machines and equipment in a college department of business education?"

The factors to be considered are so interrelated that it is difficult to identify which comes first. Obviously, if a new college department were being equipped, the problem would be one of purchase rather than replacement. However, even the first-time purchase involves foresight into maintenance and replacement factors, which must be considered at the time of initial purchase.

Another far-reaching question relates to school and to business. Does the school influence the machines and equipment used in business? Or does one take a survey of machines found in business and thereby determine the nature of purchases to be made and instruction to be given? Does the school influence, or in any way affect the selection of machines used in business? Does the school follow the pace and pattern of business and thereby provide machines available in business?

SURVEY OF BUSINESS MACHINES

Although the kinds and makes of machines introduced to students in schools may have some influence on the selection of machines in offices, it appears that the reverse is more generally true. In fact, because of limited funds, the school often receives a generous donation from business firms of models that are out of date and are being replaced in business. The donation is equivalent to the trade-in value of the old machines. The donated machines may provide equipment for basic training and represent equipment that is better than none at all, even though the equipment may not be of the latest design.

Since business education students are being prepared to enter the business world, it seems appropriate to venture into the world of business to see what the student may expect to find. However, it is difficult to identify the vast range of occupations in which students actually may be employed. The location of offices in which students find employment has become so broad that it is provincial to rely on any local office survey, irrespective of the size of the city. Nevertheless, a survey made in Cincinnati in cooperation with the local chapter of the National Office Management Association by a committee of high school office practice teachers may lend some hints about machines used in business. The survey was made in 1961 and included office machine practices in both large and small business offices. Automated equipment such as sorters, collators, and tabulators were omitted from the survey since instruction of this type was not included in the high school office practice classes. The information reported is based on responses from 90 business firms.

Following is a report of machines for which instruction was recommended. These are listed in descending order of machines according to frequency in the firms reporting:

	Instruction Recommended	*Instruction Not Recommended*
Typewriters—Manual	96%	4%
Typewriters—Electric	96	4
Transcribing Machines	87	13
Ten-Key Adding-Listing Machines	84	16
Duplicators (fluid, stencil, offset)	79	21
Keypunch	77	23
Copying Machines	72	28
Bookkeeping Machines	69	31
Rotary Calculators	64	36
Key-Driven Calculators	60	40
Full Keyboard Adding-Listing Machines	59	41
Vari-Typers	38	62
Shorthand Machines	28	72

As a result of this survey, there were some significant observations.

1. There appeared to be a trend toward greater use of printing calculators. Comments made by 40 per cent of the firms recommended no further teaching of key-driven calculators.
2. Various kinds of machines were being used for duplicating purposes. There appeared to be a trend toward increased use of offset duplicators. Fluid duplicators were being used quite extensively in small business firms. In both large and small business firms, the use of stencil duplicators was decreasing.
3. In most of the business offices surveyed, transcription machines were in use. In large business offices, there was noted an increased use of stenographic pools and an increasing number of transcribing machines. Shorthand machines were used in 7 per cent of the firms surveyed.
4. Copy machines were recommended by 72 per cent of the respondents.
5. There was a definite trend toward the increased use of electric rotary calculators and also an increased use of electric ten-key adding-listing machines.

6. Electric typewriters were found in 85 per cent of the firms. Electric typewriters were used exclusively in 7 per cent of the firms. In the firms surveyed in 1961, there were 4522 manual typewriters as compared with 1158 electric typewriters.

This survey is useful in providing information about machines used in business and may serve as a valuable guideline in determining machines to be purchased by high school and college business departments.

Excluding special electronic equipment, the purchase of typewriters probably will constitute the major item in the budget of a business education department. The quantity to be purchased will be affected by several things, such as college and university objectives, course offerings, physical facilities, and college and departmental enrollments. The emphasis to be given specialized education will be an important factor in determining the quantity of typewriters to be purchased. The extent to which typewriting is considered by school officials to be a general skill desired for everyone will affect the number of courses and the number of typewriters to be provided. Whether the teaching of typewriting is a one-semester course for personal use for many students, or whether it is a three- or four-semester course will affect the number of typewriting stations made available. The actual stations installed may vary according to the size of the room or rooms available. Whether beginning shorthand is to be taught in rooms equipped with typewriters, or whether students are to transcribe in longhand for a semester or a year, thus postponing their learning of actual business skills, is another factor affecting the number and utilization of typewriting stations. The optimum number of typewriting stations in order to provide the most effective instruction is still probably in the process of being discovered. However, in several colleges, about 40 stations in a classroom appears to be a satisfactory operating unit.

Whether schools should furnish manual or electric typewriters is debatable. There are those who point to the cost of electric typewriters and conclude that many more typewriters could be made available by purchasing manual machines. These people find support in the thought that transfer from manual to electric typewriters can be on the job, if necessary, and that the time required for transferring is insignificant. On the other hand, there are those who believe that learning is enhanced by the use of electric typewriters exclusively. And though some others are convinced that electric typewriters are the most desirable, they are influenced by lack of funds and compromise by purchasing part manual machines and part electric machines. Whether there is any justification for choosing one brand of typewriter over another is something each college department will have to decide.

Whether or not the typewriting stations in a classroom are all equipped with one model of machine and one make must be decided. In order to keep the equipment in good operating efficiency, it is preferable that all the machines be the same make and model. Also, a single model installation simplifies classroom instruction. However, in the interest of preparing students to use whatever machine they may be given when employed, it may be desirable for students to be exposed to a wide variety of models and makes. It may be that a multiple model installation would be advisable for advanced classes in typewriting, immediately preceding employment; but for beginning and intermediate courses, a single model installation is perhaps most satisfactory.

Except for the typewriter itself, the most important thing to be considered in purchasing a typewriter is the nature of the repair service to assure the continuous operation of the machine. What good is a classroom filled with typewriters if a third of them need service repairs before they can be used? What good is a room filled with typewriters if it requires two weeks or a month to get the repairman to respond to a service call? When considering the purchase price of a machine, do not underestimate the importance of the service costs included with the price or in addition to the price quotations for the machine. Service offered is important in helping to decide whether to purchase a multiple model installation or a single model installation. Do not overlook the fact that service for a single machine of a particular make and model will not likely be so easily obtained as service for a room filled with the same make and model. In an attempt to please salesmen and students by installing all kinds and makes of machines, you, as a supervisor, may really be inviting complications insofar as operating efficiency is concerned!

That a yearly service contract should be signed for the maintenance of each machine is debatable. Maintenance may depend upon the extent of daily use of each machine. For a machine that is used constantly throughout the day, it may pay to negotiate a service contract for the machine; however, it may be more reasonable to pay for service repairs as they occur rather than to place all machines under a service contract. Once again, this is a matter that will be influenced by the nature of the service proffered, the cost of such service, and experience with the company and its machines.

To assist in identifying machine repairs which need to be made, a service request record may be helpful. This request form may be placed on the tackboard in the typewriting classroom. As repairs are needed, the date and nature of the request is indicated on the request form. If students write the service requests, caution should be taken to see that the requests are verified by classroom instructors lest servicemen are asked to remedy something which the instructor could take care of or something the student did not understand when initiating the request. Servicemen may be asked to complete the report whenever a machine is repaired and indicate the date of the repair. By posting this service record to a ledger of typewriting machines, those machines which are giving excessive trouble may be identified and replaced. This record may provide adequate substantiation when one's choice of a particular make or model differs from the lower priced machine recommended by the purchasing department.

Thus, in seeking price quotations on makes and models of typewriters, care should be taken to determine the length and nature of the repair service that is part of the purchase price. In fact, it may be that the length and nature of the repair service will be the most important factor in determining which typewriters to purchase.

The disposition of present machines in the business education department will affect the replacement policy and trade-in value. It may be that the machines to be replaced by new ones will be transferred to other locations within the university instead of being traded in to the company. This practice may determine the specifications of the replacement policy. On the other hand, it may be that replacements are made directly with the companies from which the new machines are purchased.

At the time the quotations on prices of new equipment are being considered, the trade-in value two, three, or five years hence should not be overlooked. Two typewriters may have an original purchase price of $325; however, the trade-in value for the same machines three years later may vary by as much as $100. Furthermore, the allowance for trade-in will vary, depending on the company from which the new machine is to be purchased.

Replacement costs are significant in deciding whether to purchase a manual or electric machine. At first glance, it appears that electric machines cost much more than manual machines and that the depreciation is proportionately higher, also. This may not be true. Following is a report by a business educator:

> A typical example on trading machines is as follows: Some electric machines with an original purchase price (educational discount) of $320 are being traded in this year. We have a trade-in policy of trading machines every three years and our depreciation over the past three years for these machines has been a total of $95, or $32 a year. (This will vary depending upon the make of the machine up to perhaps $150 over a three-year period.) The initial cost of the electric machines is greater, of course, than the manual machine, $320 as opposed to $150-$180 for a manual machine, but the depreciation rate schedule will run about the same. This will vary from machine to machine, but essentially the cost differential is basically the main factor when purchasing an electric instead of a manual machine. The difference in upkeep and repairs runs a little bit higher on the electric machine, but not appreciably so.[1]

CALCULATING MACHINES

The problems related to purchase and replacement of calculating machines are similar to those of typewriters. Paramount in the purchase or replacement of calculating machines is the nature and extent of repair service for the machines. Here again, the desirability of entering into annual service contracts will have to be decided. There is no general rule for making this decision. It will depend upon the cost of the service contract, the machine under consideration, and the cost of miscellaneous service repairs. Probably the most efficient arrangement from the point of view of the manufacturer or dealer and the college department would be to have all machines under annual service contracts. However, this may not be the most economical arrangement from the point of view of the school. It should not be overlooked that some service contracts may be written for the eight- or nine-month period of the school year. By obtaining school service quotations for the various machines in the classroom, the supervisor may be able to decide more efficiently which machines to operate and which machines to purchase or replace.

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[1] Wiper, Robert E. "Electric Typewriters Can Be Justified." *Balance Sheet* 44:108-11, 140; November 1962.

DUPLICATING EQUIPMENT

Whether a college department should provide instruction in the operation and use of offset duplicating equipment is another area of conflicting points of view.

It is to be noted from the Cincinnati survey of 1961 that there was a definite trend in the increased use of offset duplicators in business firms. From this and other sources which verify this trend, one may find evidence to support the need for this equipment in college business departments. On the basis of large-quantity duplicating or high-quality duplicating, there is justification for offset duplicators. However, it is questionable whether a college business department should purchase offset machines and therefore concern itself with the instruction of operators of this special equipment. Or should a college department be concerned primarily with the preparation of master copies which are processed on an offset machine? Should a college business education department instruct students in the fine points related to the preparation of master units and then arrange with the university press or printing shop to have the master processed? In an office, is the operating of an offset duplicating machine the responsibility of the office manager and his employees or is this type of equipment under the jurisdiction and responsibility of a printing department? If the operation of an offset duplicating machine is expected of office employees, perhaps it should be a part of the instruction given in school. The operating improvements and decreased cost of offset equipment suggest that the purchase and replacement of this equipment may make offset machines standard equipment in college departments of business education.

For quick run and few copies, the fluid duplicators probably will continue to be basic office equipment. Experience in the preparation of masters and the operation of fluid duplicators should be provided all business students. Another kind of reproduction is that done by copy machines, using light, heat, or chemical processes. These new machines are operated easily and are operated so quickly that only a brief time is required to acquaint students with them. It is presumed that college departments will provide opportunity for students to become acquainted with the operation and usefulness of copy machines.

TRANSCRIBING AND RECORDING EQUIPMENT

So far as transcribing machines are concerned, there may be a question of purchase or rental of equipment. Scientific improvements come so fast that equipment becomes obsolete in a few years. One wonders if it would not be better to rent the latest machine each year, and thus eliminate the problem of depreciation and obsolescence. Thus, for some machines, each college department will need to gather facts and figures to assist in making the decision of whether to rent or to buy.

The usefulness of tape recorders for recorded instruction and for practice dictation makes these machines an essential in the business education department. The relatively low price of tape recording equipment has increased its widespread use.

DATA PROCESSING EQUIPMENT

Data processing equipment may be desired in college departments, but it may be more costly and less likely to be available than some other types of office equipment. Whether or not college funds and the student demand justify the installation of key-punch machines, sorters, collators, and tabulating machines will need to be decided by each college. However, students should be made aware of the essentials of data processing. This may be provided by courses in the mathematics or accounting departments of the university.

MACHINES FOR TEACHING

In terms of teacher instruction, there are other machines which may be highly desirable. Whether or not a department has a record player, a tachistoscope, and a controlled reader may depend upon the extent to which members of the staff are acquainted with these machines for teaching. The nature and extent of research in a business education department may be influenced greatly by the extent to which these specialized machines are available for experimental purposes.

SOURCE OF FUNDS

Preference for specific makes or types of office equipment by employees is often based upon learning experience gained prior to employment. Undoubtedly, some office decisions about the kind and make of machine to be purchased are influenced by previous acquaintance and conditioning in the classroom. Favorable advertising gained from classroom installations even prompts some manufacturers to give educational discounts for office equipment used in the schools. However, it appears that in the future, as in the past, school funds will be the primary consideration in the purchase and replacement of machines and equipment for college departments. It is hoped that wise decisions will result from the careful consideration of factors affecting the expenditure of these funds.

CHAPTER 41

The Ideal Department Chairman

Elmer R. Browning

The department chairman attempts to evaluate his own activities in terms of the recognized objectives of those with whom he works. The success of the chairman is no greater than his ability to promote desirable educational objectives among his colleagues and to bring about a realization of those objectives. Stating this purpose in a different way, it may be said that the department chairman has two primary jobs: (a) to make the policy pattern of action for his department and (b) to carry out the policy pattern effectively.

For the most part, these two greatly different tasks resolve themselves into one even greater task. The one dominating purpose that lies behind every move that a chairman may make is that of promoting morale within the staff and among the students. In the field of business, an estimate has been made that general unhappiness among employees costs business management more than $3 billion a year. One-fourth of every management group is sufficiently unhappy with the job to add to this tremendous cost of doing business.

In business education, the potential unhappiness of staff members and students is a cost factor of significant proportions. Within the faculty, low morale results in an unfavorable chain reaction that makes its negative appearance in many strange places and at most inopportune times. Fortunately, however, the reverse situation also exists. The happy teacher and the happy student become an investment in good will that reflects credit upon the department.

The day-to-day job of the department chairman is to satisfy the demands of many groups. These include the staff members, students, parents, alumni, salesmen, maintenance workers, college administrators, academic colleagues, public-school officials, state department representatives, business employers, prospective students, and college placement bureaus. All of these groups merge into three categories: the business staff, the business students, and the school administration. In a small department, the issues that arise are seldom complex and can be settled with a minimum amount of negotiation among the primary contact groups. In a large department, the issues are more likely to be serious and complicated when they reach the desk of the chairman. Negotiations must go through preset channels. Typical routine becomes a chain of paper work and approval that tends to make negotiations among the staff, students, and administration more complex.

The ideal department chairman has solved all the problems that cause unhappiness with his staff and his students. Since few, if any, department chairmen enjoy the ideal status, the remainder of this discussion will be an analysis of some of the everyday problems for which answers are constantly sought.

THE BUSINESS STAFF

The top-ranking problem of the department chairman is the employment and retention of teaching personnel. All other problems in education are secondary to the hiring of good teachers. The purpose of the college administration is to serve the cause of good teaching. The purpose of the student is to profit from good teaching. The purpose of the public interest is to promote good teaching. The primary goal of the department chairman is to serve all of these purposes by seeking out the good teacher and by keeping him happy.

Teacher employment begins with a vacancy on the staff. State institutions may have to wait as late as June in a legislative year to determine the staff budget for the following year. In nonlegislative years, staff needs should be determined by February 1, and no later than March 1. The second step in teacher employment is the contact with placement bureaus and other valuable sources of information concerning teaching personnel.

In an established department, teachers are employed for fixed positions that do not change from year to year. The department chairman assigns the new teacher to his teaching area with the assurance that the specialized background of the teacher will be used in a permanent and predetermined manner, as long as the person remains on the staff.

In fast-growing departments, however, schedules are constantly changing, and initial employment may involve a broader type of negotiation with the prospective teacher. For example, teacher education departments are moving into the area of the liberal arts and business administration. The new business administration major demands a type of business program that is greatly different from the potential teacher.

In the early stages of developing the business administration curriculum, the department chairman must employ teachers who may be used in business skills and who may later be needed in the basic business administration courses. Finding teachers who will handle these mixed schedules is not easy. The younger candidates for such schedules are likely to prove successful for two reasons. An older business teacher whose entire experience has been in the skills and the teacher education areas is seldom interested in business administration courses. The second advantage of the younger candidate is that his own education is likely to be from a college whose business department is making a similar adjustment to an emphasis on such courses as economics, finance, marketing, management, and statistics. He will accept a schedule that includes the business skills, but he will consider the possibility of the basic business courses as a challenge and as evidence of broad departmental horizons.

While the teaching schedule is the basic factor in the employment of staff members, it is not the only important concern of the applicant for a college teaching job in business. The community and the college must furnish suitable and attractive living conditions. The college must have a housing bureau that is anxious to help new instructors. The realtors and other agencies in the community must have sufficient interest in the college to offer preferential treatment to college tenants.

The greatest source of competition that the department chairman meets in employing new teachers is in the area of the fringe benefits that business firms offer to well-trained business people. The department chairman who can meet this competition with business will succeed in building a staff of energetic and competent teachers. The chairman who ignores the competition of business will only succeed in employing teachers who are not desired by business. What are the fringe benefits, and how are they obtained? They are the same in teaching as they are in business: reasonable working hours, comfortable working conditions, group insurance plans, attractive retirement programs, published promotion schedules, selected student material, efficient and sympathetic administration, and sound long-range policies for the improvement of academic standards.

Reasonable working hours are not always favorable hours. Eight o'clock classes, lunch-period classes, and late-afternoon classes are command performances on all crowded college campuses. Teachers will accept a fair share of these undesirable assignments. They must believe, however, that an effort is made by the department chairman to equate the undesirable assignments throughout the entire staff and over a long span of time.

The primary contribution of the department chairman in providing better teaching schedules for his teachers is made by obtaining an adequate number of teachers to make all weekly schedules reasonable. If business teachers are given weekly teaching schedules of 20 or more clock hours of classroom duty, the department chairman is not telling his story to the college administration. The ideal department chairman is able to compare the teaching load of his teachers with the typical weekly load of science teachers or of any other academic departments that conduct supervised laboratory sessions. On most college campuses this means from 12 to 16 hours a week for lecture assignments and no more than 18 hours a week when laboratory sessions are included in the schedule.

In addition to the total classroom teaching hours, the department chairman must be constantly aware of the preparations that a teacher must make. Three and four preparation schedules are sometimes necessary and unavoidable. The ideal teaching assignment, however, should contain no more than two preparations. New instructors often have new teaching schedules, but a two-year span of teaching within a department should bring any new teacher a repetition of courses and a reduced number of preparations.

The day-to-day problems that instructors encounter with students in classes and with advisees constitute a major part of the day's routine in the department office. The primary obligations of the department chairman are (a) to have a broad awareness of typical teacher-student problems, (b) to have an ability to make decisions quickly and firmly, and (c) to use the resources of his office to minimize personal frictions that can arise. The department chairman will find the daily chores less difficult if he maintains an office that is easily approached by both teachers and students. Many minor problems are aggravated by delayed action. A problem-solving miracle of modern building construction is the interoffice communication system within a department.

Each teacher should have a private office with a direct communication system to the department office. There are many ways of providing teachers with part-time office help. This is an absolute necessity if the teacher is asked to carry an assignment of business advisees in addition to a regular teaching load. Typewriters, staff duplication facilities, office and classrooom supplies, and attractive office furniture are necessary to high staff morale.

Retirement program, group insurance, on-campus food services for teachers, automobile parking, registration duties of teachers, teacher participation in policy making, and promotion schedules are of great significance to teachers. The ideal department chairman acquaints himself with all possible arguments of his staff for needed improvements in fringe benefits. He will also acquaint himself with the attitude of the administration toward the difficulties involved in providing these fringe benefits. In the middle ground, between the teachers and the administration, he finds a *modus operandi* that satisfies both groups.

THE STUDENTS

The end product of the department of business is a successful business graduate. The students are the "goods in process" on the production line. The educational conveyor belts move 24 hours a day. The responsibility of those who supervise the production is immense. The constant ambition of the department chairman is to improve the product that he turns out in each successive commencement line.

Primary fields of difficulty result from conflicts of opinion concerning the exact nature of the educated business person. Parents are inclined to measure the results of an education in terms of the monthly paycheck of the college graduate. Staff members gauge student potential solely with the yardstick of scholarly achievement, as represented by classroom accomplishment. The college administration desires, above all else, a good college citizen. Business employers may stress the virtues of the automat personality who will conform to the demands of a push-button regime. The department chairman is in a peculiar position to evaluate criteria for business success. The evaluation is something that goes on in every conference with a student, in every staff meeting, in every recommendation made to an employer, in every syllabus for a new business course, and in every notation on the permanent record of the student.

Although the products of the college and of the department of business are widely criticized, society continues to demand business graduates in increasing numbers. Business entrepreneurs speak justly of the faults of business graduates, but their personnel officers stand in line at the college placement bureaus seeking more business graduates. But the voices of the critics must be heard; the department chairman cannot afford to ignore them. There is good evidence, however, that the chairmen listen. The accountants, personnel managers, salesmen, college teachers, and other graduates who go out into business do not remain silent for long if their college business training has been inadequate. The department chairman must either listen to his critics or place his own name on the availability rolls of the placement bureau.

The daily flow of students who seek help in the department office reflects the worries, the ambitions, and the progress of the development. Most of the interviews that take place with the chairman relate to matters of scheduling and curriculum requirements. Every problem is important. Every student is important. The chairman must be alert to all the comments made by students, but he must weigh each reaction carefully.

In many instances, the department chairman must enforce the academic regulations of the college. Each session brings new regulations and new frustrations to students and their advisers. Poor students are more likely to become involved in a failure to abide by college regulations than the better ones. In many instances, a simple failure to read the college catalog is the source of the student's difficulty. Whatever the source of the problem, the explanation of the consequences of the violation is difficult if the punishment to the student is severe. It is in this area of keeping students informed of college requirements that the advising program will meet its most significant challenge. Good advisers will anticipate the alibis of the dilatory student and will hedge his excuses with clear evidence of informed and thorough action. Poor advisers will rationalize their own failure to cope with student problems.

There are some fundamental and positive tools that must be used in guiding students. Department convocations are essential vehicles for explaining departmental and college regulations. Department preregistration sessions effectively forecast the scheduling problems that all students encounter. Departmental organizations such as Phi Beta Lambda (Future Business Leaders of America) provide opportunities for developing leadership among the students. A staff manual keeps the faculty informed about the department and the college. Advisers' records should give a complete report of the progress of each student. With these tools, the department chairman, as would any other manager, sets standards, checks performance, evaluates results, and takes corrective action.

Students of business must meet the same scholastic standards as those in any other department of the college. Course standards within the department should be sufficiently rigid as to maintain a high level of performance after admission to the department. Courses in accounting, statistics, and advanced secretarial practice are among the many business subjects that become academic hurdles that cannot be jumped by the lazy or the inefficient student.

THE COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION

For the long term, the success of a college administration is no greater than the total success of the departmental chairmen. Every chairman, therefore, presides over an important segment of the college and becomes an effective college administrator as he carries out college policy. He has an important voice in making policy. He has an obligation to take full responsibility in carrying out the decisions that he has helped to establish. In return for his support of college policy, the department chairman receives support and encouragement for his own blueprint of progress for his department.

That departmental blueprint for action must be a long-range plan, and it must conform to the objectives of the college. The demands for staff, student recruitment, classroom and office space, new curricula, and higher academic standards are matters of almost daily discussions with one or more members of the college administration. But the entire blueprint for progress may never be shown to the administration. It is sufficient that the department chairman have a long-range plan of action and that each major request to the administration be in line with the ultimate objective. Administrative officers must leave detailed planning to the chairman. In fact, no department chairman will last long in his job if the dean or the president must reassure him at every turn that he is on the right road. He must choose the road and accept the fate of the choice.

Where does the department chairman meet with success or failure in his dealings with the administration? The many crosscurrents of college policy come in perpetual contact with departmental policy and ambitions. Important administrative decisions come down to the department chairman daily, and it is here that he must account for his losses and his gains. He will never take an unnecessary backward step. He and his staff will count the many forward steps that are permitted. These steps are easily counted in any fairly short period of time in a progressive department. Progress assumes various forms in business education. Some indicators of forward-looking action are:

1. Preregistration and registration procedures are constantly examined and held up to the light of student and staff criticism.
2. General education and core business curricula are sources of a never-ending investigation of worth to the student.
3. Staff welfare is considered in some manner at every staff meeting.
4. Convocations, student advising, and general student relationships compose a basic part of the agendum for each departmental meeting.
5. New curricula for a fast-changing business world are a fundamental basis of staff research and progress.
6. The public is kept informed of the progress of business education through brochures and other media.
7. Scholastic standards of achievement advance. Standardized and departmentalized examinations give support to high goals. Higher undergraduate and graduate entrance requirements increase the probability for more efficient graduates.
8. Increased budgets for instructional salaries, equipment, and classrooms give momentum to effective business teaching.

The ideal department chairman is familiar with the causes of professional happiness among his staff members, of scholarly achievement among his students, and of managerial success with his superiors. All three of his primary working groups are pleased with his performance.

CHAPTER 42

Post High School Accreditation: Agencies and Purposes

John E. Binnion

Numerous organizations—agencies, and associations, and commissions—are today engaged in the process of accrediting schools. Some operate only within the United States of America; some work only within specific geographic regions consisting of groups of states; and some are organized for the purpose of accrediting schools in the various fields of education for specific vocations. This article will cover in brief each of these types.

WHAT ACCREDITATION MEANS

Because education beyond the high school has no federal (and actually, little state) control, a person can easily see the possibility of chaos if there were no rules or standards of performance. Population mobility, as well as vocational performance standards in any field, must be provided for by some type of uniformity of educational standards. Accrediting agencies help to provide for this uniformity and at the same time allow for a high degree of individuality of schools—parochial and public, technical and liberal arts, graduate and undergraduate, for example.

For the purpose of this article, then, it is possible to write a working definition of accreditation. Accreditation, as one applies it to education, is a public verification of the fact that a particular school (at whatever level is involved) has met certain standards or criteria which have been established by the accrediting agency and accepted by both the public and the professions and vocations involved. The major purpose of the accreditation is to promote continuous self-study and insure high quality standards of curriculum and instruction.

HOW ACCREDITATION IS ACCOMPLISHED

Application. When a school is ready to ask for accreditation, it writes to the particular agency (or commission or association) and asks for the necessary application forms. Naturally, some study has already been done and the school is generally certain that the application is made to the correct agency. The agency, in turn, will send the materials which are necessary and applicable for that particular part of the accreditation sequence.

Self-Study. The school next completes a self-study, according to the information included in and required by the application forms. Some of the self-study and evaluation would obviously have already been done; but much more would have to be done, if for no other reason than to make the data current and to verify prior findings. Every member of the faculty should be brought in so that individuals would have a good idea of what others in other departments or divisions are doing. Assignments should be made to all faculty and staff members so as to provide maximum use of individual talents.

The Visitation. After the self-study has been finished, and after the numerous forms have been completed and the statistics compiled and checked, the accrediting agency will appoint a visitation team. The agency will select competent persons to make the inspection, and it is significant that for the most part these individuals become consultants and advisors rather than evaluators. The interchange of ideas between the visitor and the visited helps everyone.

Naturally, during the visitation, the team must test certain policies and procedures in an effort to determine whether or not the school meets the criteria of the agency. But in almost every instance the policy of the school is a factor in determining this point—and the individuality of the school quite often is more important than an individual, arbitrary standard of the agency.

Public Notice. After the visitation, and after the report of the visitation team, the agency will pass on the application of the school. And it is at this point that individual agencies differ most; some of the agencies will either say "approved" or "disapproved"; some will offer either unqualified accreditation or probational accreditation; and some agencies will have other classifications. In most instances, however, the agency will publish a list of those schools which have earned either complete or provisional accreditation.

Periodic Review. Most of the accreditation agencies also have provisions for periodic re-inspections. The merits of this are rather obvious, for the school is required to maintain some sort of a self-study program which will keep it current. The provisions of the review also make it imperative for the school to continue to keep up the standards required by the agency.

Illustrative Requirements. Table 1 is an illustration of some of the educational matters which can be evaluated. The four agencies described later in this article are used in the illustration, and the check list items are broad in nature and certainly not all-inclusive. The purpose of the illustration is to show that agencies do not all look for the same things in an evaluation; and even when the same item is emphasized by several agencies, the standards of performance or the extent of importance may not be equal.

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

To illustrate the regional accrediting agencies, the North Central Association will be used. However, it must be pointed out that most of the regional agencies are similar and are therefore quite uniform in their standards. The other regional associations are the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, and the Western College Association.

The North Central Association, the third regional agency to be founded, was not actually established as an *accrediting* agency. Its first purpose was " . . . to establish closer relations between the colleges and the secondary schools of the North Central States." In 1905, it set up the first standards for the accrediting of secondary schools, and by 1910 the accreditation of colleges and universities was begun.

TABLE 1.—ACCREDITATION CHECK LIST

Item	NCA[a]	AACSB[b]	NCATE[c]	ACBS[d]
Resources				
Financial Position	x	x	x	x
Faculty	x	x	x	x
Library	x	x	x	x
Physical Plant	x	x	x	x
Research Facilities	x	x	x	
Admission and Curriculum				
Admission Requirements	x	x	x	x
Curriculum—General Education	x	x		
—Professional Education	x	x	x	x
Curriculum Re-evaluation	x	x	x	x
Faculty Conditions				
Salary Policy	x	x	x	
Teaching Load	x	x	x	
Fringe Benefits	x	x	x	
Student Provisions				
Guidance and Counseling	x	x	x	x
Housing	x			
Extra Curricular Activities	x	x	x	x
Permanent Records—Policies	x	x	x	x
Employment			x	x
Financial Aid	x	x	x	x

[a] North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools
[b] American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business
[c] National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education
[d] Accrediting Commission for Business Schools

Purposes of Accreditation. Almost any good manual on accreditation will describe the purposes of the North Central or any other Association so those purposes will not be listed here. In brief, the major purposes are to describe the characteristics of excellence, and to stimulate the improvement of higher education.

Basic Questions for School Evaluation. The NCA believes that to find answers to the following questions is the first step in the evaluative process.

1. Is the educational task of the institution clearly defined?
2. Are the necessary resources available for carrying out its educational task?
3. Is the institution well organized for carrying out its educational task?
4. Are the curriculum and instructional program adapted to the goals of the institution?
5. Are conditions of faculty service likely to promote high morale?
6. Is student life on the campus well balanced and educationally meaningful?
7. Is the level of achievement of students consistent with the goals of the institution?

To each of the preceding questions the school authorities must find and prepare detailed answers. Statistical evidence and extensive documentation must be prepared and presented. Every possible help must be given to the visitation team, and in many cases the written material will make up several bound volumes. Also because there are specific standards—for example, on library materials, degrees earned by the teaching faculty, special curriculum problems, and the like—a thorough, long-range study and writing program must be considered.

The Visitation. The typical examining committee will be composed of at least two persons, one of whom is from a school similar to the one visited. More members, however, may be appointed. The committee will spend at least two days on the campus.

Over 80 areas of examination are considered, too, so the school must pay particular attention to complete answers. The visitation team then summarizes its findings in a report which is submitted to the NCA for action.

Other Matters. The NCA requires each member school to be revisited at periodic intervals—at the present time, a 1957 resolution called for revisitation of all member colleges and universities during the following ten years (beginning in 1958). Annual reports are required, and special reports are required on selected matters.

In general, the NCA seeks to evaluate an institution in terms of its total educational program. Specialization, however, has made such a task very difficult. To this end, the NCA has adopted a policy of cooperation with other agencies, this policy will be illustrated in other sections.

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE SCHOOLS OF BUSINESS

One of the agencies concerned with the evaluation of educational programs of professional fields is the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business. It is a powerful organization whose major purpose is to promote and improve collegiate business education in North America. It also serves as a clearing house for information on problems in collegiate business education as presented by its membership.

The AACSB was organized in 1916, and according to Richard C. Reidenbach, former Executive Secretary, the stated objectives of the first annual meeting were six in number:

1. Business investigations and research; their methods and scope
2. Training for teachers of business subjects
3. The relation of the school of business to the parent institution
4. The extent to which a school of business should undertake the teaching of quasi-technical subjects
5. The terminology of business subjects
6. Honor societies for students of collegiate schools of business.

A cursory reading of the objectives would indicate the need to reemphasize the study of all items on a current basis. Indeed, this is actually being done in every case except perhaps for item six.

Basic Questions for School Evaluation. The AACSB states its purpose as that of helping to improve the quality of education for business, not only on the campuses of member schools, but among all schools. Certain specific standards are important and are listed here—although it must be understood that these are items selected by this writer and do not necessarily reflect the importance as viewed by the AACSB.

1. The member school must be an independent degree recommending unit.
2. At least 40 per cent of the total hours required for the bachelor's degree must be taken in business and economic subjects; and at least 40 per cent of the total hours must be in subjects other than business and economics provided that economic principles and economic history may be counted in either the business or nonbusiness groups.
3. Because the foundation for business administration is in economics, accounting, statistics, business law (or legal environment of business), business finance, marketing, and management, the undergraduate student must have instruction in each of these fields.
4. It is expected that at least 50 per cent of the teaching credit hours on either the junior-senior level, or on an over-all basis, will be taught by full-time faculty members having terminal degrees.
5. Members of the instructional staff should not teach courses in excess of 12 credit hours a week, nor should a faculty member have more than three different course preparations a week.

The Visitation. The visitation team is usually composed of two members, although more persons may be assigned. This team, too, is guided in its evaluation by a set of criteria which has been set down by the association.

The guide which is prepared for those schools desiring admission is most detailed. As in the case of the NCA visitation and evaluation, the school desiring admission must spend many months in performing a self survey and many dollars in preparing the completed manuscript. Answers to all the questions which can be satisfied by statistical summaries must be complete so that the committee can spend the major portion of its time in interpretation and synthesis.

An end-of-inspection meeting is also scheduled, and in a statement prepared for schools interested in membership the AACSB makes the following statement. "When a Visitation Team completes its inspection and evaluation, it will, in a final conference with the Dean of the applying school and with any others he may wish to have present, review the general impressions gained from the visit and from study of the school's questionnaire and other materials. Such a conversation necessarily will be unofficial and informal." It is obvious, however, that with such a meeting the school could begin the work of correcting weaknesses, if any, so a follow-up report could be ready for the annual meeting of the AACSB. Whether or not the follow-up report would be accepted is another matter, but the school at least has an opportunity to know of and correct deficiencies.

Other Matters. The AACSB has a policy of cooperating with other accrediting agencies, and it complies with the program of the National Commision on Accrediting. When a visitation is arranged, it notifies the regional association involved of the impending AACSB visit.

However, although the association makes allowances for regional or special objectives, it expects the school to maintain curricula that approximate the standards set forth in "The Constitution and the Standards for Membership in The American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business.'' The AACSB also requires that an applicant institution be first accredited by the appropriate regional agency before any action can be taken by the membership committee.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR ACCREDITATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education is rather young in actual years, having been formed in 1954. However, it is the combination of several other separate (and older) agencies organized for the purpose of accrediting teacher education—all of which had separate standards. NCATE is now recognized by the National Commission on Accrediting as the official professional accrediting body for teacher education.

The primary purpose of NCATE is to evaluate the teacher education program of a school along the following lines:

1. The clarity and appropriateness of the teacher education objectives
2. The effectiveness of the organization for teacher education
3. The student personnel policies and practices relating to teacher education
4. The patterns of academic and professional courses required in the various teacher education curriculums
5. The qualifications of the professional education faculty
6. The tendency of facilities and resources for the teacher education curriculums offered
7. The promise of the professional laboratory experiences.

NCATE, as in the case of other accrediting organizations, requires many detailed statements, comparisons, summaries, statistical presentations, and the like. But in every instance the emphasis is on the professional education of teachers. It refers the evaluation of the general faculty, quality of instruction, and other matters of general college or university importance to the regional agencies. W. Earl Armstrong, director of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, has written that ". . . the Council evaluates the pattern of courses for the teacher, not the separate courses."

The Visitation. The visiting team usually consists of from four to nine members who are selected with specific reference to the school and the program being evaluated. For example, the team visiting a college which specializes in teacher education would be somewhat different from the team which was sent to evaluate a university. The visitation is usually planned for a three-day study.

Perhaps more than in any other evaluation mentioned in this article, the NCATE team is asked only to report the facts and to refrain from making recommendations. One has little difficulty in understanding this rule if he considers the many different backgrounds from which the evaluators may come—liberal arts colleges, technical schools, tax supported schools, teachers colleges, universities, separate graduate schools, private schools, and very small schools, for example.

Cooperation With Other Agencies. At NCATE's inception, there was general recognition that of the more than twenty recognized national professional accrediting groups, at least four were concerned to some degree with teacher education—and one of these was the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business (see preceding section). NCATE decided at that time that it must have primary responsibility for the accreditation of all programs of teacher education—including those for business teachers. However, NCATE also has recognized the fact that not all of the preparation for the profession of teaching is done in "schools of education." So for schools in which teacher preparation is the responsibility of some division other than education, that separate division is also evaluated. This is just another way of saying that NCATE is evaluating the teacher education program, wherever it may be housed, and that a college or university does not necessarily have to change a basic pattern in order to meet some non-existant arbitrary standards.

The agency also cooperates with the regional accrediting associations in joint evaluations or re-evaluations. A joint visitation has many advantages, not the least of which is a study of the entire school rather than the study of a part—such as the NCATE evaluation of teacher preparation. And a joint visitation undoubtedly allows the school an opportunity to prepare for a visit with a minimum amount of distractions, important as they may be.

Other Matters. Because NCATE is a rather new organization, and because it was the result of a combination of several existing agencies, the problems have been many. Generalists, for example, may have difficulty in evaluating specialized programs such as business and economic education. But specialists also have difficulty in evaluating the teacher preparation programs for school administrators or school service personnel.

Many cooperative studies are currently under way, and NCATE is expected to emerge as a strong, vital agency. And with this emergence may come a more uniform policy of teacher education and certification which will add a certain degree of national uniformity to our professional status.

THE ACCREDITING COMMISSION FOR BUSINESS SCHOOLS

In 1952 the National Association and Council of Business Schools, the largest association in the field, sponsored the Accrediting Commission for Business Schools as an independent agency. And in 1956 the United States Office of Education officially designated the ACBS as the nationally recognized accrediting agency of proprietary business schools under the provisions of Public Law 550, 82nd Congress.

Criteria for Evaluation. The ACBS, although originally established by the National Association and Council of Business Schools, has certain powers and responsibilities concerning accreditation which are not subject to review by the parent organization. ACBS is, then, charged with the responsibility of accreditation which is not subject to influence or periodic changes. The evaluative criteria, under this strong charge, include the following areas of investigation: (a) objectives of training, (b) curricula, (c) administration policies, (d) graduation, (e) instruction, (f) student personnel services, (g) school plant and equipment, (h) financial relations with students, (i) student recruiting policies, (j) financial stability, and (k) administrative policies.

The Visitation. School visitation is conducted (usually) on a one-day basis. One of the team is an educator not connected with the private business school movement, and this person is usually the chairman of the visitation team. The other member is an administrator of an accredited business school (not a competitor).

For schools which are classified as private collegiate schools, at least two additional outside educators and one additional business school administrator will be added. The inspection will be lengthened, too, to provide sufficient time for the additional necessary evaluation.

Once a year the ACBS meets to review all evaluations under consideration. Accreditation can be unconditional or can be given on a provisional basis subject to certain conditions. Some schools are, of course, refused accreditation because of specified inadequacies or practices.

Other Matters. Of most importance to this section is the requirement of re-evaluation every five years, or upon change of ownership. And if complaints are received concerning school policies or procedures, the ACBS may also require a re-evaluation.

It appears, therefore, that the public image of the private (or proprietary) business school should undergo a change. The ACBS and its parent organization, the National Association and Council of Business Schools, offer an opportunity for professional accreditation of the private schools which are providing a large percentage of our accounting, clerical, and stenographic workers.

Professional accreditation agencies provide an excellent pathway for a consistent and uniform evaluation of business education programs. As time goes on, and as educators work together for uniformity in practice and procedures, the certification as an "accredited school" will mean a high degree of excellence.

But perhaps the most important single facet of the present program of accreditation is that of the self-evaluation which each school must make while it is preparing for the evaluation team. The school has an opportunity to really look at its entire program, compare it with the agency's standards, and honestly seek an answer to the quality of its program. Visitation then provides an important interchange of ideas—accreditation is almost an anticlimax.

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